

LONGMANS' REGIONAL
GEOGRAPHIES OF INDIA

THE INDIAN EMPIRE

PART I. INDIA, BURMA AND CEYLON
PAPER BOARDS AND COMPLETE IN ONE VOLUME

BY

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WITH 176 MAPS AND DIAGRAMS

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LONGMANS'
REGIONAL GEOGRAPHIES OF INDIA
BY

F.G. FRENCH AND L. DUDLEY STAMP, B.A., D.SC.

PART I.	NORTH-EAST INDIA.	Re. 1
PART II.	PENINSULAR INDIA.	Re. 1
PART III.	NORTH-WEST INDIA.	Re. 1

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PREFACE

THE present volume forms Part IV of *Longmans' Regional Geographies of India*. The first three parts, already published, deal respectively with North-East India, Peninsular India and North-West India. Like the predecessor of the whole series which was entitled *A Geography of Burma for Schools* these three parts bore the names of Mr. F. G. French and myself as authors.

It is gradually becoming an honoured maxim that geography should begin at home and the first three books of this series were designed for the use of boys and girls living in the part of India described. It was felt that India is too vast a country to be dealt with as a whole for the Middle School pupil. The present volume forms a 'second step' extending the study of geography to the whole of India.

In writing the present volume, I have kept three objects in view.

Firstly, that the ground covered in this book follows on naturally from Parts I, II or III. Thus a child resident in Calcutta will go through Part I (North-Eastern India) and then on to this book where in the first few chapters great principles of geography are briefly recapitulated and illustrated from their working on the whole of India. Then follow chapters on each of the important Provinces and States. The whole is connected by the closing chapters of the book.

Secondly, I have endeavoured to make the book self-contained, so that it can be used by itself as a school text book, without reference to the earlier parts. It must be remembered, however, that most of the introductory matter in each chapter is more tersely expressed and in slightly more advanced language than in Parts I, II and III.

Thirdly, I hope that this book will be of service to teachers in England and elsewhere, not necessarily as a class text-book, but as a guide to them in drawing up schemes of lessons on India.

The general scheme of the present volume does not differ greatly from that drawn up and used by Mr. French and myself in the volume on Burma, and in the three earlier volumes of the present series. In each of the first twelve chapters there is a brief introduction to the main geographical principle involved, followed by a study of how that principle works in India. In Chapter XIII India is divided into natural regions. In the first three volumes of the series there followed at this stage descriptions of each of the natural regions. Political geography was given a very subsidiary place. In view of the fact that many school syllabuses in the various provinces demand a particular knowledge of certain provinces, I have, in the present volume, devoted a chapter to each province, thus giving a little more emphasis to political divisions. At the same time the treatment remains on the basis of natural regions. The later chapters of the book, on communications and trade, serve to link together what has gone before.

The exercises at the end of each chapter are meant to serve as guides only. The teacher should draw up many others on each chapter similar to those given. The value of original exercises, especially those involving the intelligent use of sketch-maps, cannot be overestimated.

The matter contained in this volume is based mainly on the Official Publications of the Government of India and some Provincial Governments.

Finally, special attention has been paid to the requirements of the various school syllabuses in the Provinces and States throughout India, and an attempt has been made to include the information required by the varied curricula.

Rangoon 1926.

L. D. S.

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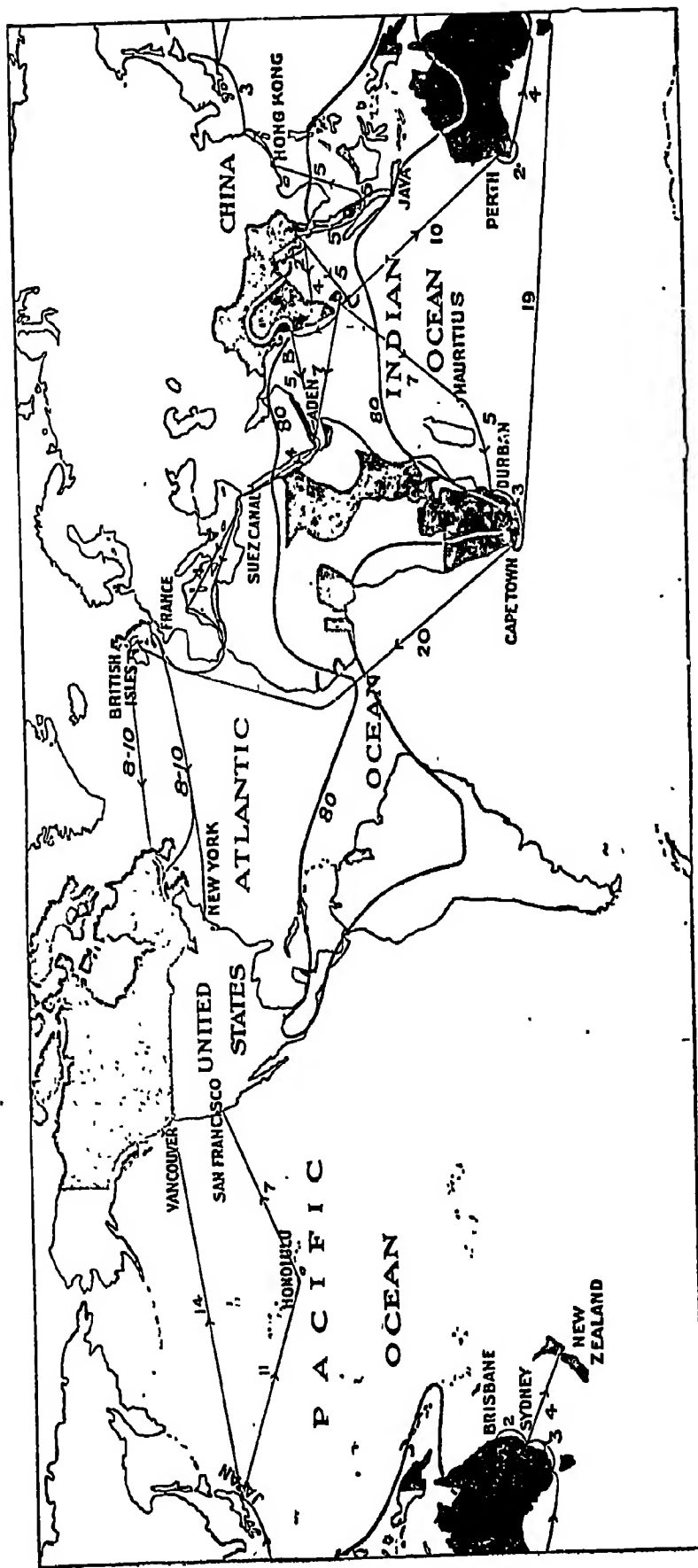


FIG. 1.—Map of the World, showing the British Empire-lines from Rangoon to other parts of the world are shown, and the number of days' sailing for each stage of the journey. An average rate for a modern steamer is 300 miles a day.

A Geography of India, Burma and Ceylon

CHAPTER I

POSITION AND SIZE

1. **The Indian Empire.**—The area we are going to study in this book is often named 'The Indian Empire'. It comprises India proper and also the Province of Burma which is really very different and which is separated from the rest of India by a wall of mountains. In the same way Baluchistan is a dry plateau somewhat cut off from the rest of the country. To the south of India is the large island of Ceylon, which does not form part of the Indian Empire but which is closely connected by its geography with Southern India. The Indian Empire is divided into a number of Provinces and States, about which we shall learn later.

The Indian Empire forms part of the great 'British Commonwealth of Nations' or 'the British Empire' which you can think of as a large family of nations joined together for the common good.

2. **The Position of India.**—You have learnt that there are seven great land masses in the world which we call the continents. India forms part of the largest of them, the continent of Asia. Look at a globe, or a map of the world on which the equator and the Tropics of Cancer and Capricorn are marked. Notice first of all that India is entirely north of the equator. It is in the Northern Hemisphere. But the Tropic of Cancer passes right through India. Part of the country is north of the tropic and part is south. This is a very important fact for you should know that the sun shines vertically on all places between the two tropics twice during the year. On June 21st

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the sun is shining vertically over the Tropic of Cancer, that is over the centre of India. At this season India will be a very hot country. You will learn about temperature in a later chapter, but remember that the countries inside the tropics are the hottest in the world. India is very nearly inside. Fig. 1 shows you the position of India compared with other countries of the world.

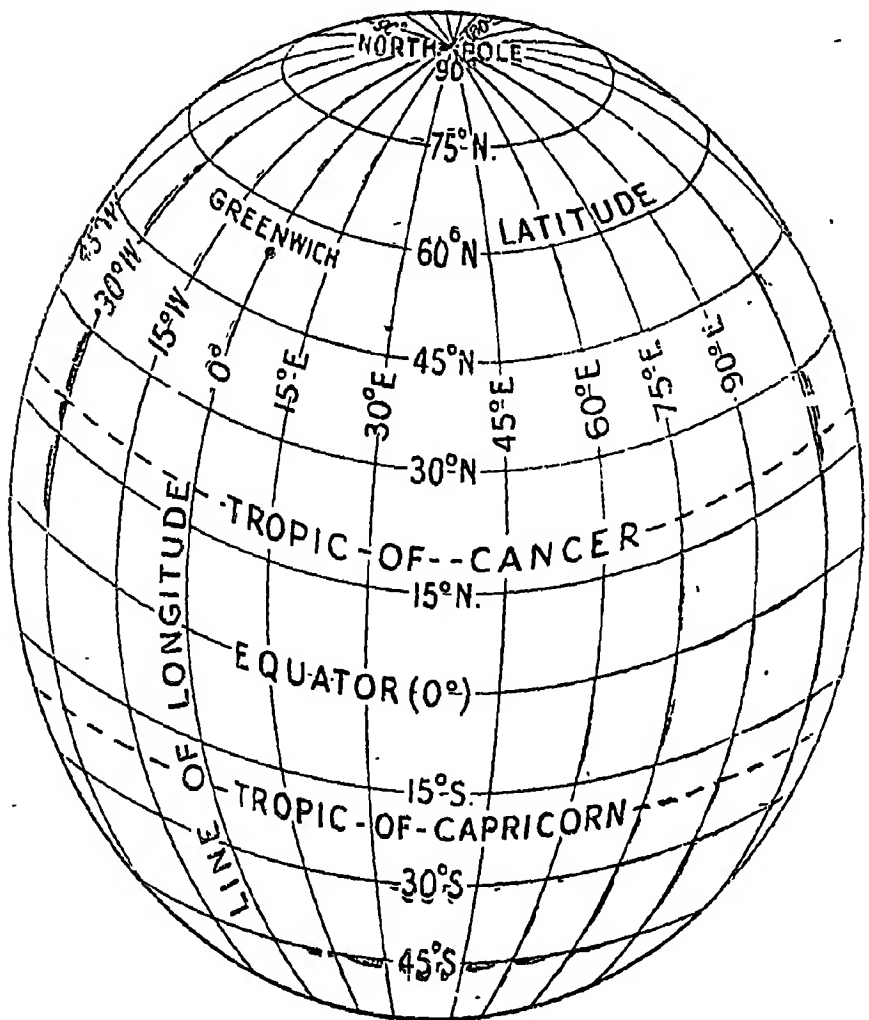


FIG. 2.—Diagram of latitude and longitude.

3. **Longitude.**—India lies to the north of the equator. But in order to express the position of countries on the world more exactly, the earth has been divided up by imaginary lines. In your geometry you learn that a circle is divided into 360 equal divisions called degrees. The equator, running round the earth is a circle and is divided into 360 degrees. Lines are drawn through the north and

south poles and across the equator, one degree apart. One of these lines, the one passing through a place called Greenwich, which is part of London, is called 0° and we count east and west from this. The line of 88° East

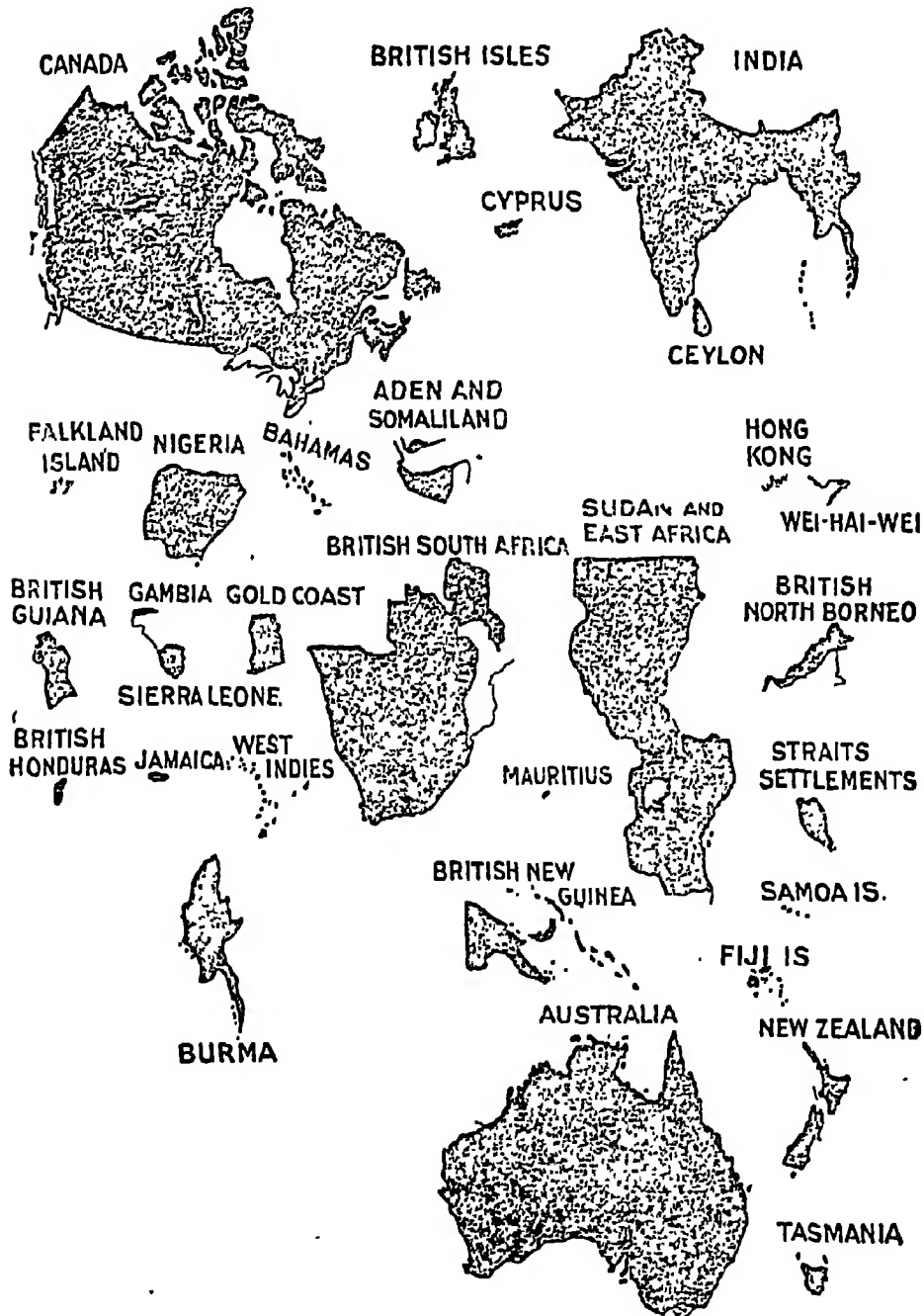


FIG. 3.—The different countries of the British-Empire, showing their comparative sizes.

passes through Calcutta. These lines are called lines of longitude. India stretches from longitude 61° E. to 101° E. That is through 40 degrees of longitude or one-ninth of the way round the globe.

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4. **Latitude.**—If we travel from the equator to the poles along a line of longitude, we pass through a quarter of a circle or 90° . The equator is called 0° and the North Pole 90° N. and there are 90 degrees of latitude between the two. India (including Ceylon) stretches from 6° N. to 37° N.—that is through 31 degrees of latitude or more than one-third of the distance from the equator to the poles. Remember that the Tropic of Cancer is $23\frac{1}{2}^\circ$ N.

5. **Size of India.**—You will now understand that India is a very big country indeed. From the north of Kashmir to the south of India is over 2,000 miles, and from Baluchistan to the Shan States of Burma is over 2,500 miles. The area of India is 1,800,000 (nearly two million) square miles. In Fig. 3 the size of India is compared with other countries in the British Empire.

6. **Local Time.**—The world turns completely round from west to east once in 24 hours. Although to us the sun appears to rise in the east and set in the west the sun is really fixed and it is the earth which moves—turning round from west to east. Since the earth turns completely round—that is 360 degrees in 24 hours, it turns through 15 degrees in an hour or 1 degree every four minutes. Now places in the east will see the sun before places in the west. Calcutta is in longitude 88° East. Therefore Calcutta will see the sun rise $88 \times 4 = 352$ minutes or 5 hours 52 minutes before Greenwich does. Another way is to say that the sun will reach the highest point in the sky, that is it will be noon or midday, at Calcutta 5 hours and 52 minutes before it is at Greenwich. If you went to the west of Greenwich the sun would rise later than at Greenwich. Here is a little rhyme to help you remember this :—

Go to the east, Greenwich time is least.

Go to the west, Greenwich time is best.

When the sun has reached the highest point in the sky at any place it is 12 o'clock noon by local time at that place.

7. **Standard Time.**—You will see that nearly every place in India has its own local time and the clocks at Delhi would show a different time from the clocks at Lahore, or Bombay or Madras. Now this would be very difficult, so one time has been adopted for the whole of India. This

time we call Indian Standard Time or Indian Railway Time. The only place in India which uses its own local time is Calcutta. If you live in Calcutta you know that the clocks in the railway stations show a different time from those in the town. Burma has its own 'Standard Time' too—taken from the city of Rangoon.

8. **Maps.**—In this book we shall be using large numbers of maps. Try to remember that a map is like a picture. If we could get very, very high up in the air, we should look down on India and see first its outline or shape, the principal mountains and rivers and we could easily draw a picture of it on a small piece of paper. That picture would be a map. But there are so many things in India that you could not show them all on one picture. So on a map we only show just a few things. Some maps are drawn to show the mountains, others the rivers, others the towns and so on. Others show just the outline of the country and we can mark on it signs which mean different things. Thus we can shade a map, using one kind of shading to indicate where heavy rain falls, and another kind to indicate where light rain falls.

9. **Scale of Maps.**—Since a map is really a small picture of a country, very many miles in the country are represented by a few inches on the map. This we call the scale of the map. Look at Fig. 156. The scale is marked at the bottom. It is 400 miles represented by one inch. There is also a line drawn on the map marked '300 miles'. The length of that line represents 300 miles in the country. Practise using that scale. What is the distance from Bombay to Calcutta? Delhi to Colombo?

If one inch on the map represents 400 miles, one *square inch* represents 160,000 *square miles*. Now trace one of the maps in this book on to squared paper and find the area.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. What parts of India are in the Temperate Zone?
2. Name four towns in India which are just on the border between the Torrid Zone and the Temperate Zone (the region between the two Tropics is the Torrid Zone, outside are the Temperate Zones).
3. Where does the sun rise earlier, Karachi or Calcutta? Why? What is the difference?

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4. Name the ten largest countries in the British Empire, in order of size.

5. Trace a map of India on to squared paper. What area of India is in the Torrid Zone? (This question, and the exercise at the end of the chapter may be made part of an arithmetic lesson. It is very important to put lessons learnt in arithmetic to some useful purpose like this.)

6. What are the latitude and longitude of the following towns, Bombay, Delhi, Madras, Colombo? What do you mean by latitude and longitude?

7. What is the Tropic of Cancer?

CHAPTER II

PHYSICAL FEATURES

1. **Boundaries of India.**—Turn in your atlas to the physical map of Asia, in which the highlands are coloured brown and the lowlands are coloured green. Notice first of all that India is marked off very clearly from the rest of Asia by a great wall of mountains. In the north-west the mountain

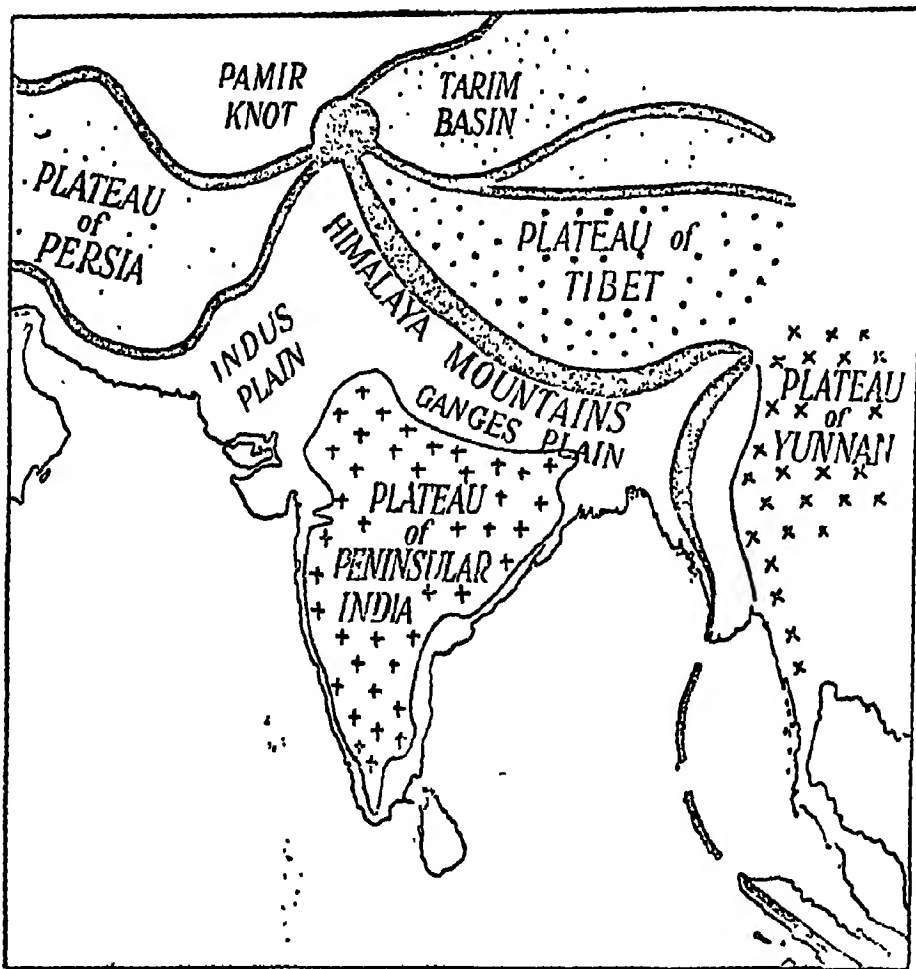


FIG. 4.—Mountains and Plateaux of Southern Asia. Plateaux of old hard rocks marked by crosses, fold mountains marked in black lines, and younger plateaux by dots.

wall cuts off India from Persia and Afghanistan, on the north the mountain wall includes the highest mountains in the world and divides India from Tibet. On the east the mountain wall sweeps down and cuts off Burma from India. That is one reason why Burma, although it is a province of the Indian Empire, is very different from the rest of India.

Burma, in its turn, has another wall of mountains cutting it off from China.

India is surrounded, then, on the north-west, the north and east by mountains. On all other sides is the Indian Ocean. India is, as we say, very clearly marked off by its physical features.

2. **Physical Divisions of India.**—Look again at your atlas and notice what lies within the Mountain Wall, and makes up India. There are two large areas of green, which means lowland, and a large area of light brown or yellow, which means a plateau. From this we learn that India consists of three main parts :—

(a) a great mountain wall ;

(b) a great lowland plain, the plain of Hindustan, formed by the valleys of three great rivers, the Indus, Ganges and Brahmaputra, and their tributaries ; and

(c) a great plateau, the plateau of Peninsular India. These three great regions are shown for you clearly in Fig. 4. Remember that little sketch-map so that you can draw it from memory.

Burma is composed chiefly of mountain ridges and long river valleys, nearly all running from north to south. Only one part of Burma is really flat and that is the main valley of the Irrawaddy.

3. **The Coast Line of India.**—Now let us look for a moment at the sea coast of India. Run your pencil along it and notice that there are few deep bays or gulfs. Look at the position of the places in the heart of India—like Delhi or Peshawar or Nagpur. They are all a very long way from the sea. This explains why very many Indians have never seen the sea. Now look at a map of Norway or the British Isles. The coast is very different from that of India. It is very broken up by deep bays, gulfs, river mouths, etc., and no part of the country is very far from the sea. As a result nearly all English people or Norwegians have seen the sea, most of them like the sea and many of them are sailors. In India it is not so, only the people who live near the sea like it and learn to become sailors. In geography we say that India has an uninterrupted coast line. In India the shape of the coast line has two important effects. There are very few bays or gulfs which can be used as harbours. Out of all the important ports of India only one has a good

natural harbour—Bombay. Two others are on river mouths (Calcutta and Rangoon). At Madras and Colombo are artificial harbours made by man. The other important effect is on the character and occupation of the people. If you look at Burma you will see that the people who live in the heart of the country are not very far from the sea but they are cut off from it by a mountain wall and so they too, are not a sea-going nation.

4. **The Mountain Wall.**—We must now go back and learn a little more of the mountains of India.

The Mountain Wall has been given different names in different places. Right away in the far north is a great knot of mountains, over three miles high, known as the Pamir Knot. Note the position of the Pamir Knot very carefully. From here great ranges of mountains run out in all directions. Greatest of them all is the Himalayan Range, branching out in a south-easterly direction and running in a great curve for nearly 2,000 miles. The Himalayan Chain has many of the highest mountains of the world—Mt. Everest, 29,000 feet; Kinchinjunga, 27,815 feet and many others. Another range which is really a northern branch of the Himalayan chain runs eastwards from the Pamir Knot and is called the Karakoram Range. One of its highest peaks is Mount K2 or Mount Godwin Austin (28,250 feet). Further east this range passes into the Kwen Lun (or Kun Lun) Range.

Westwards from the Pamir Knot into Afghanistan is the Hindu Kush; south-westwards are the Sulaiman Mountains and the ranges of Baluchistan.

Notice that to the north of the Himalaya Mountains lies the Plateau of Tibet; the highest plateau in the world and so high that it is often called the 'Roof of the World'.

The mountain wall between India and Burma has received various names. In the north, it is a narrow wall and is known as the Patkoi Hills, then it broadens out into the Naga Hills and the Manipur Plateau, sending out a great branch westwards into Assam. This branch forms the Jaintia, Khasi and Garo Hills. Southwards from Manipur are the Lushai Hills and then again a narrow wall known as the Arakan Yoma. The Arakan Yoma reaches the sea at Cape Negrais, but is continued in the Andaman and Nicobar Islands.

On the eastern side of Burma there is another series of mountain ranges, running from north to south, near the border of China.

5. *The Plain of Hindustan.*—Inside the mountain wall and forming a great curve from the Arabian Sea to the Bay of Bengal is one of the most important plains in the world. It occupies the greater part of Northern India and is more than 2,000 miles from end to end and usually from 150 to 200 miles broad. This plain is formed by the basins of three rivers and their tributaries. In the west and draining into the Arabian Sea is the River Indus. Further east is the River Ganges which flows south-eastwards into the Bay of Bengal. The city of Delhi, the proud capital of India, stands nearly on the water-parting between these two river basins. Before the Ganges reaches the sea it is joined by the third of the mighty rivers, the Brahmaputra.

Throughout the whole of the Plain of Hindustan there is not a hill to be seen. The floors of the river valleys rise so gradually that the slope cannot be seen. Nearly 1,000 miles from the mouth, the surface of the River Ganges is only 500 feet above sea-level.

6. *The Plateau.*—Nearly the whole of India south of the great Plain of Hindustan is occupied by a plateau or tableland. A tableland is so called because it is raised up above the level of the sea just as a table is raised up above the floor. If you had a table with two legs shorter than the other two, the surface of the table would slope from one side to the other. The Plateau of India is like that. The western side is the higher and the surface slopes down towards the east. The western edge of the tableland stands up high above the surface of the sea and is known as the Western Ghats. Notice that the Western Ghats are different from the ranges of mountains in the Mountain Wall. They are really only the western edge of the plateau. In the same way the lower eastern edge forms the Eastern Ghats. The Eastern Ghats are interrupted by a number of river valleys. The plateau as a whole is higher in the south—in Mysore—than it is in the north.

Between the Western Ghats and the sea there is a narrow coastal plain; between the Eastern Ghats and the sea there is a broader coastal plain.

The surface of the plateau is by no means smooth. It has

been deeply furrowed by river valleys. Then, towards the north a line of mountains runs across the plateau from west to east. These mountains are the Satpura Range, continued eastwards as the Mahadeo Hills and Maikal Range. This line is a very important one, for the mountains are not easy to cross and so the range cuts off 'Northern India' from what is properly called 'Peninsular India'. Throughout history this line has been an important barrier. There are two other parallel lines—the Vindhya Range to the north and the Ajanta Range to the south—which have helped to make the line more important.

Northwards from the Satpura line, the plateau slopes down towards the Plain of Hindustan. In the north-west, interrupting the general slope, is the Aravalli Range.

7. **The Mountains of Burma.**—We have said that, although Burma is a province of India, it is separated from India proper by a mountain wall. When we come to study the mountains of Burma itself we find that they are arranged like the fingers of a man's hand. Hold your right hand with the palm upwards and the fingers pointing towards you. Each finger will then represent one of the mountain ranges of the country. Your thumb sticking out to the left is the Himalayan Chain. Your first finger is the Arakan Yomas. Your second finger, smaller than the first, points in the same direction as the Pegu Yomas. Your third and fourth fingers have become broad and flattened and together form the Shan Plateau, divided into two halves by the narrow Salween Valley. Fig. 5 will help you to understand this, and Fig. 6 (a picture map of Burma) shows the actual lines of mountains.

8. **Doors through the Mountain Wall of India.**—We have spoken of the mountain rampart which surrounds India. There are no easy ways through it, but there are some difficult passes by which people from outside can approach India. In by-gone ages, as you learn in your history, India has been invaded many times from the north-west. The two more important doors by which the invaders came were the Bolan Pass and the Khyber Pass, which you see marked on Fig. 7. These doors are still important. Another route is along the sea coast of Makran. In a later chapter you will learn of the difficult routes through Kashmir to Tibet and of the routes through Darjeeling to Tibet.

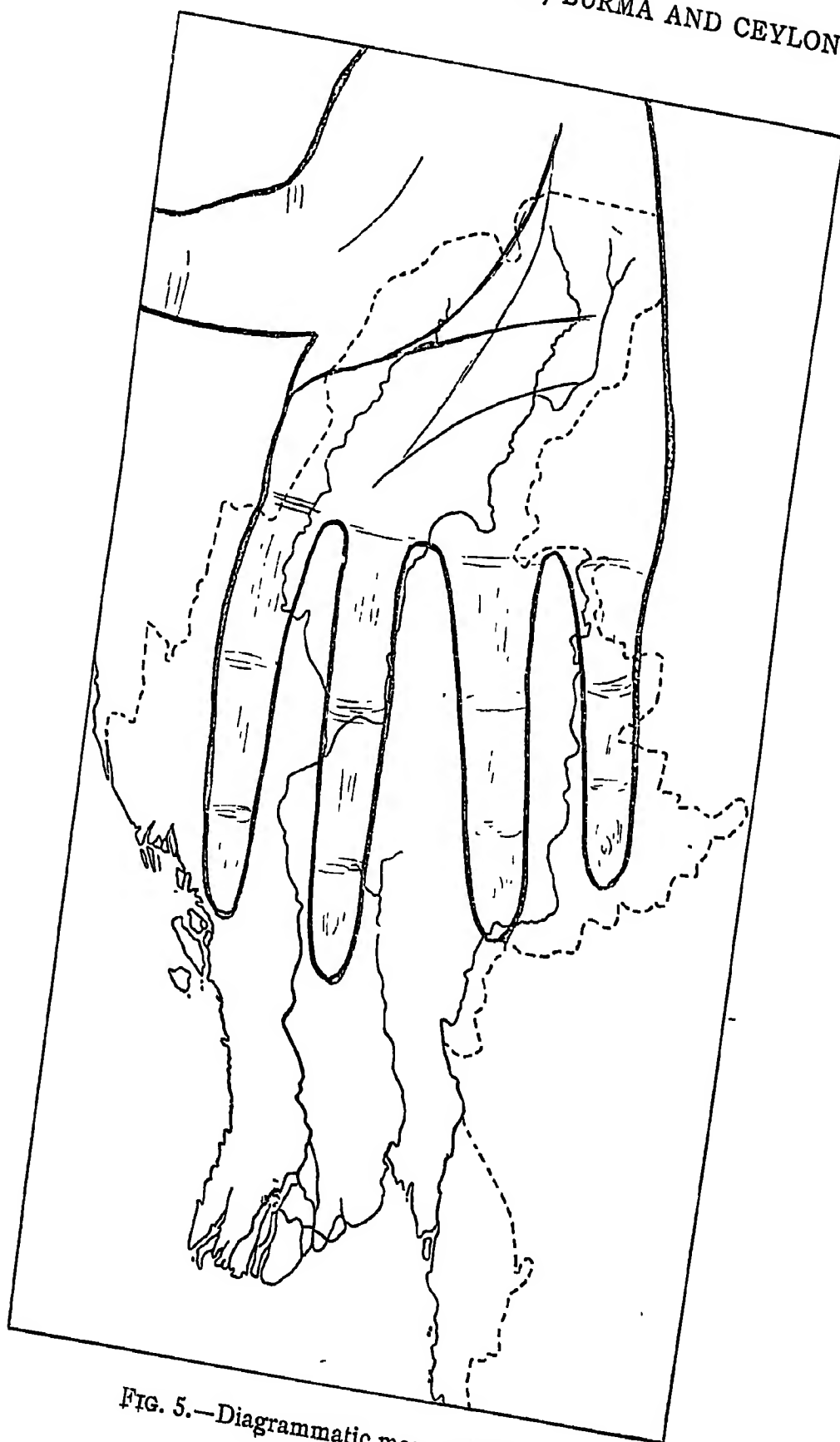


FIG. 5.—Diagrammatic map of Burma

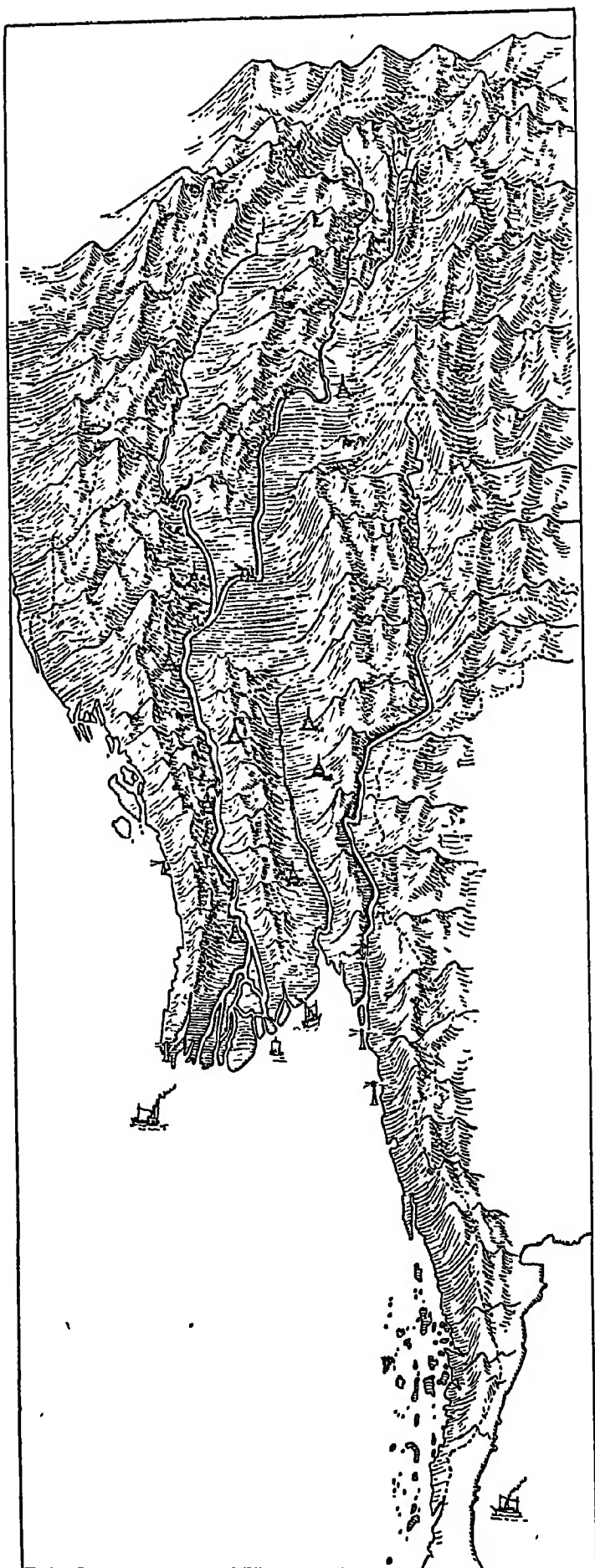


FIG. 6.—The picture map of Burma.

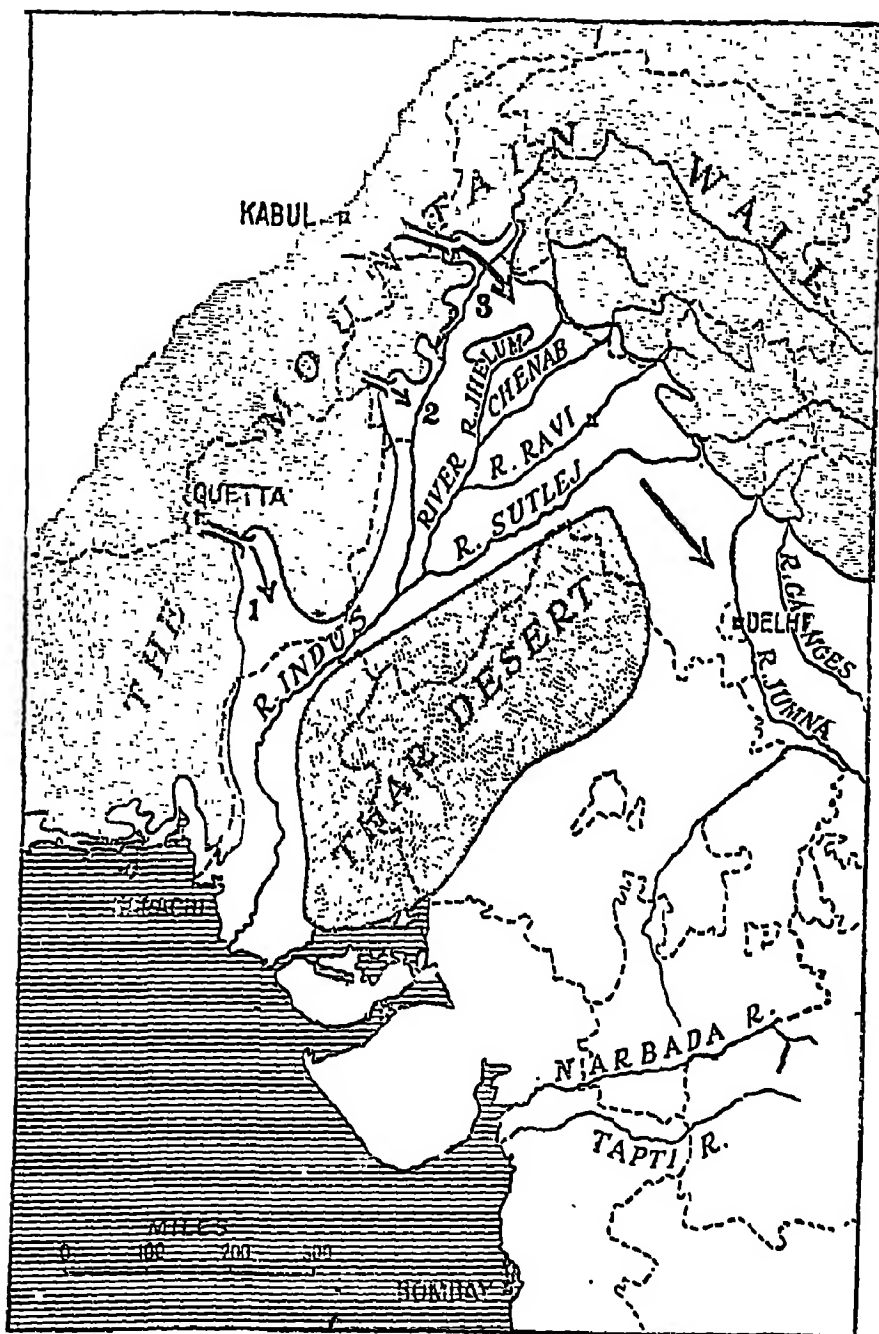


FIG. 7.—Doors of North-Western India.
 1 = The Bolan Pass ; 2 = The Gomal Pass ; 3 = The Khyber Pass ;
 4 = The Makran Coast route.

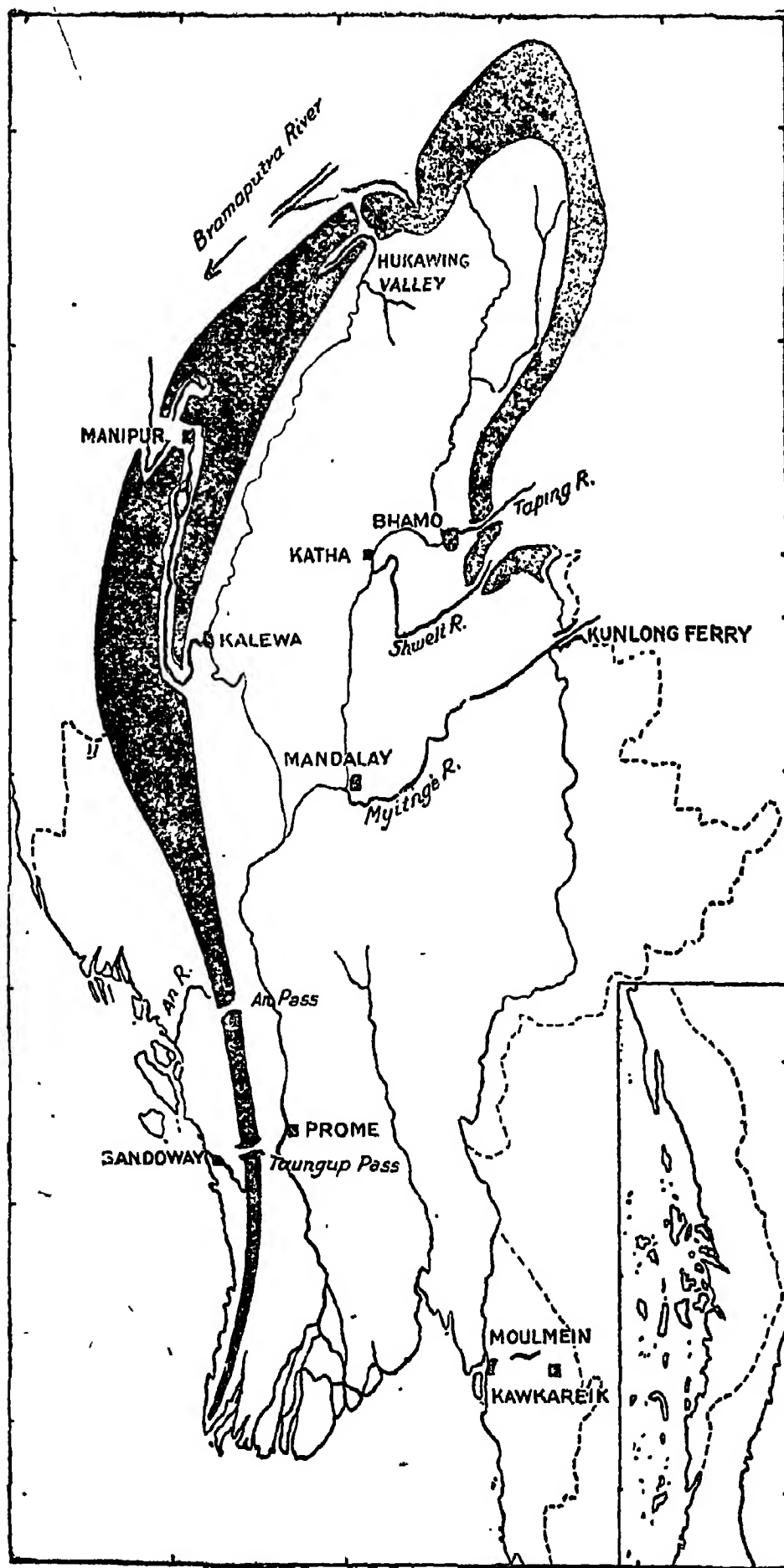


FIG. 8.—The back doors and side doors into Burma, through the 'mountain wall.'

9. Back doors into Burma.—Fig. 8 shows you the doors through the Mountain Wall which separates India from Burma. They are very little used and nearly everyone goes to Burma by sea—from Calcutta or Madras to Rangoon. The most important is through Bhamo.

10. The Rivers of Northern India.—Look carefully at your atlas and notice that the great rivers of the Plain of

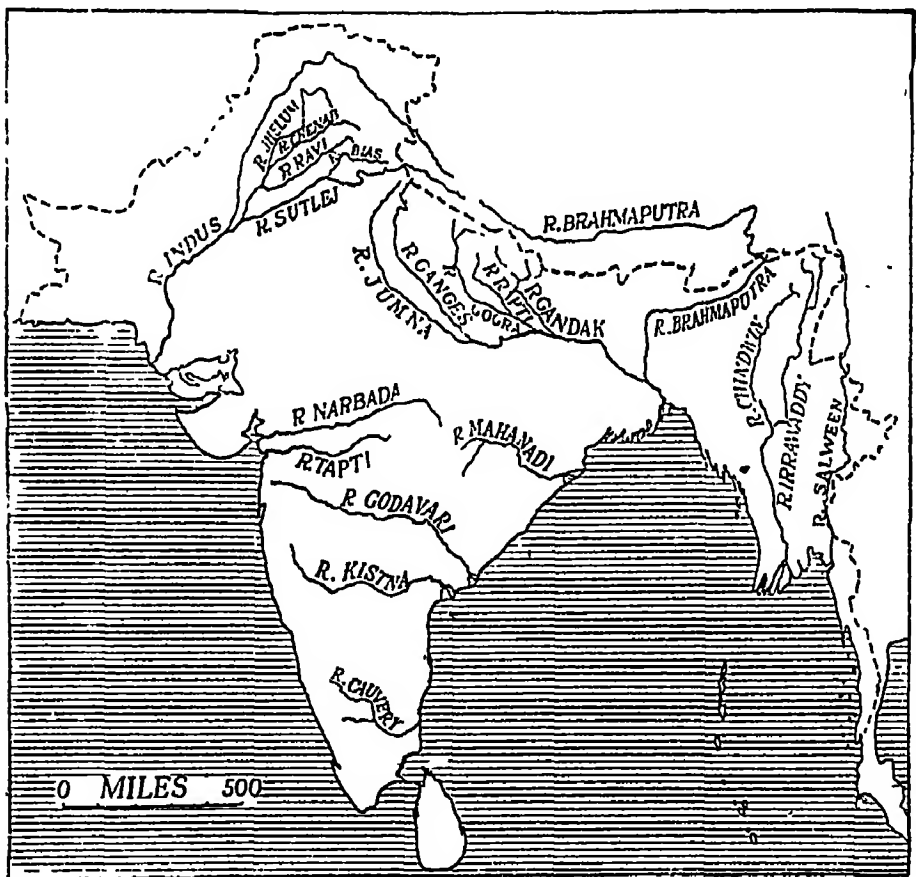


FIG. 9.—The Rivers of India.

Hindustan all rise in the mountain wall or beyond it. As we shall learn later, it is very cold in those high mountains and the ground is covered with snow for much of the year. The rivers are fed with water from the gradual melting of the snow. Thus these rivers do not depend for their water entirely on the monsoon rain; they depend also on the snow and rain which falls in the mountains at other times of the year, so we find these rivers are never dry; they always have some water in them.

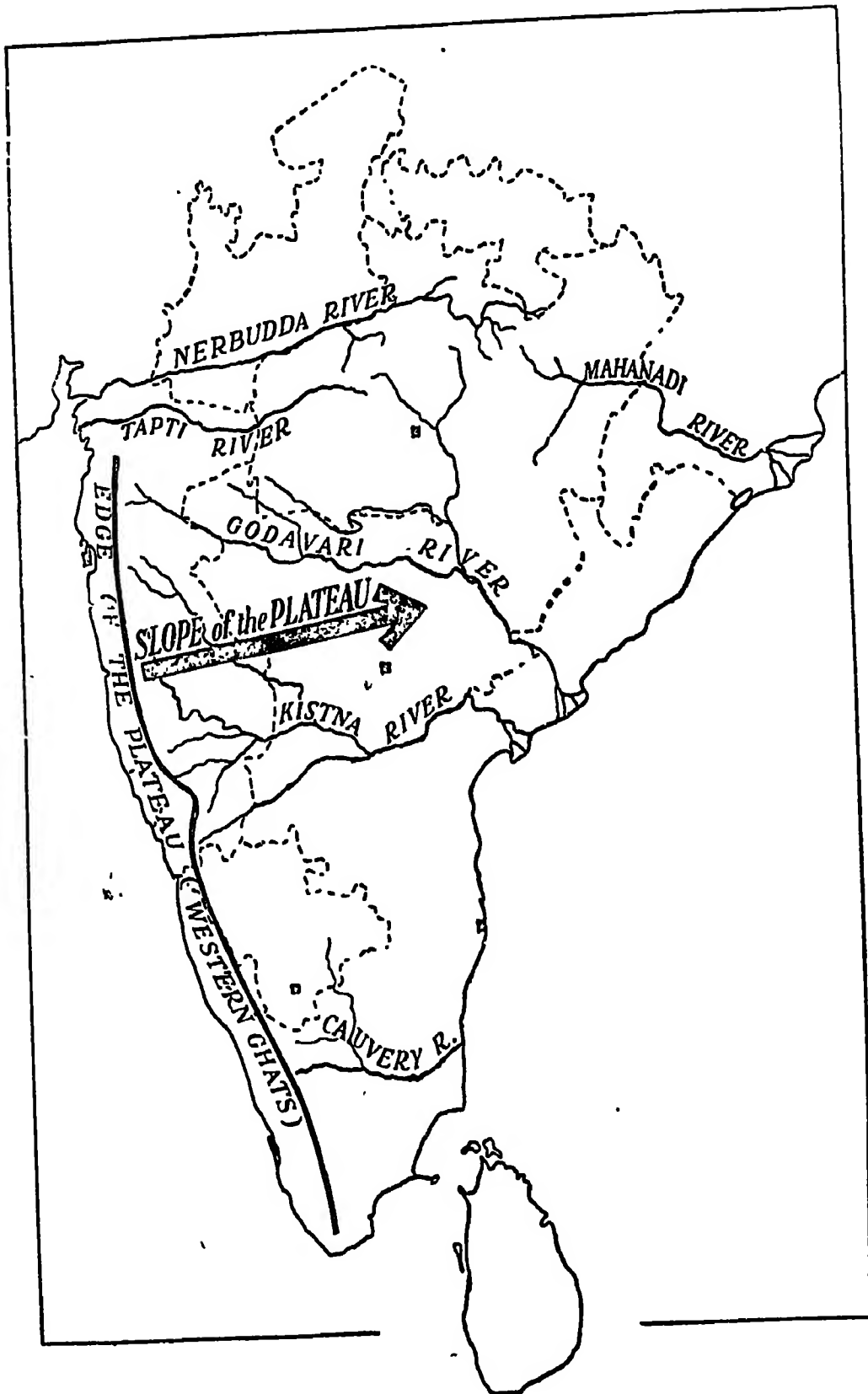


FIG. 10.—Rivers of Peninsular India.

In the mountains the rivers are roaring, rushing torrents, pouring through gorges, in narrow valleys, over water-falls and amongst great boulders. When they reach the Plain of Hindustan, they become slow, broad rivers wandering lazily across the plain. So flat is the valley that often the rivers desert their bed and make a new course.

The three great river systems of Northern India are :—

(a) The Indus River, with its tributaries the Jhelum, Chenab, Ravi, Bias and Sutlej (the five rivers of the Punjab). See Fig. 9.

(b) The Ganges River, with its tributaries the Jumna, Gogra, Rapti and Gandak.

(c) The Brahmaputra River, which has no important tributaries.

11. **The Rivers of Peninsular India.**—The rivers of Peninsular India are quite different from the rivers of Northern India. They rise in the hills of the Plateau and they are fed only by the monsoon rains. In the Dry Season they often become almost dry ; so nearly dry that only the smallest boats can use them. In paragraph 6, we said that the plateau of India slopes from west to east. If you poured water on a table top which sloped from one side to the other, of course it would run down the slope. So the monsoon rains which fall on the plateau run down the slope, from the Western Ghats to the Bay of Bengal. The most important rivers are the Mahanadi, Godavari, Kistna and Cauvery. Fig. 10 illustrates this.

We spoke above of the Vindhya, Satpura and Ajanta Ranges which run across the north of the Plateau from west to east. Between these ranges we find two important rivers—the Narbada (the old spelling is Nerbudda) and the Tapti, both flowing westwards.

12. **The Rivers of Burma.**—Like the Ganges and Brahmaputra the rivers of Burma are mighty streams fed partly by mountain snows, and having water all the year round. The rivers flow in the valleys between the 'fingers' of Burma (see paragraph 7). Between the first and second fingers are the Chindwin and the lower course of the Irrawaddy. Between the second and third fingers we find the Upper Irrawaddy and, further south, the small Sittang. Notice how the Irrawaddy crosses over the second finger. Between the third and fourth fingers is the Salween.

13. **The Rivers of Baluchistan and Tibet.**—Both Baluchistan and Tibet are very dry countries. The rivers only flow after rain, and, strange to say, they never reach the sea. They flow instead into shallow lakes which often dry up in the Hot Season.

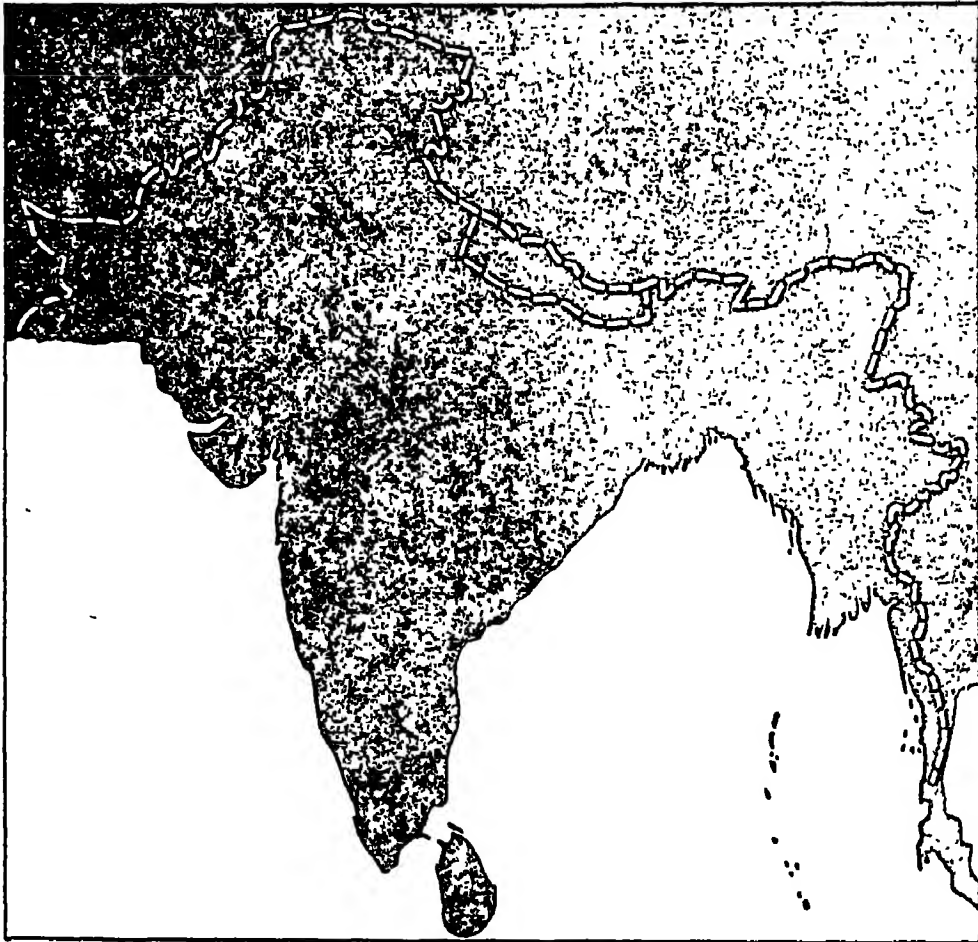


FIG. 11.—India as it is, all land black.

14. **Contours.**—We have been talking a great deal in this chapter about height above sea-level. We must have some way of showing on a map the height of the land above the level of the sea. For this purpose we use contours or 'contour lines'. A contour is an imaginary line passing through all places which are at the same height above sea-level. To help you to understand this, try to imagine that a great earthquake occurred in India and that the land sank 1,000 feet. The sea would flow over all the lowland and the only parts of India remaining above sea-level would be those parts which are more than 1,000 feet above the

present sea. In other words the sea would cover the country up to the 1,000 feet contour line.

Similarly we have contour lines for 2,000, 3,000, 4,000 feet, etc., or for any intermediate heights. If we walk along a contour line we are always exactly at the same height above sea-level and our walk cannot take us up and down hill. Why do two contour lines never cross one another.

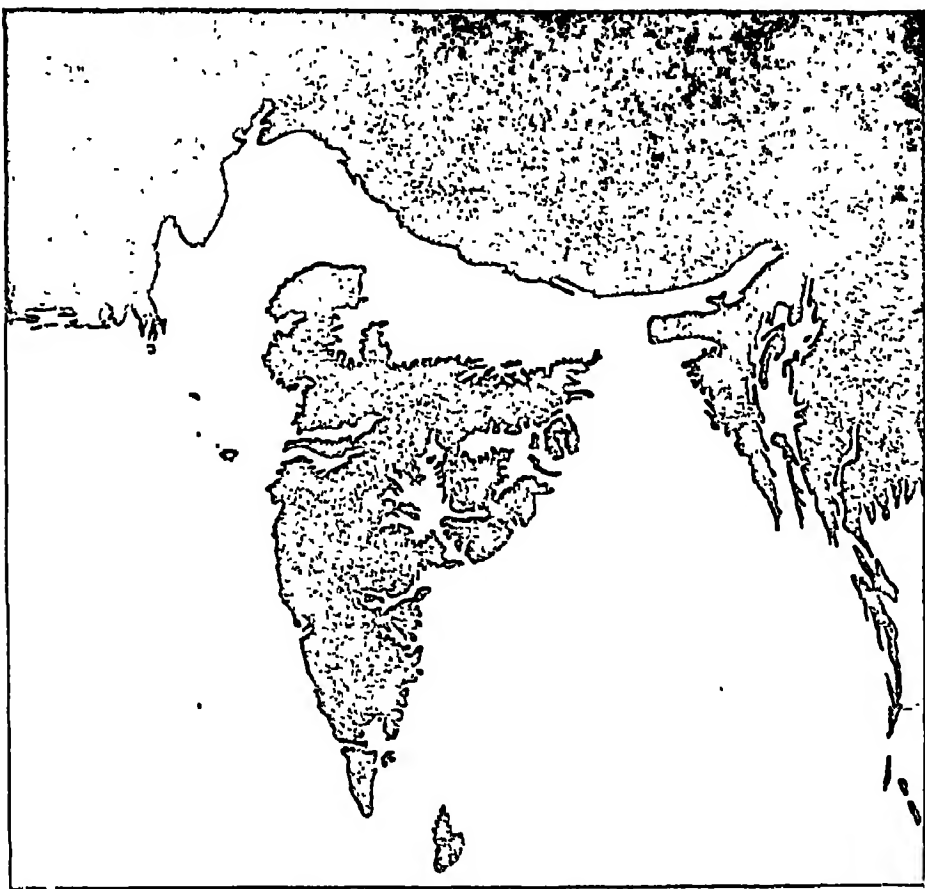


FIG. 12.—India as it would look if the sea rose 1,000 feet.

Now look at Figs. 11 to 13. Fig. 11 shows India as it is—all land black. Fig. 12 shows India as it would look if the sea rose 1,000 feet, or the land sank 1,000 feet. In Fig. 13 you see the present outline of the country; the land above 1,000 feet (compare Fig. 12) is dotted, whilst the land above 3,000 feet is in black. In other words Fig. 13 is a simple contour or physical map of India in which the 1,000

and 3,000 feet contours are marked. In your atlas the contour maps are made much clearer by the use of colour ; the low-lands are coloured green, the highlands brown, etc.

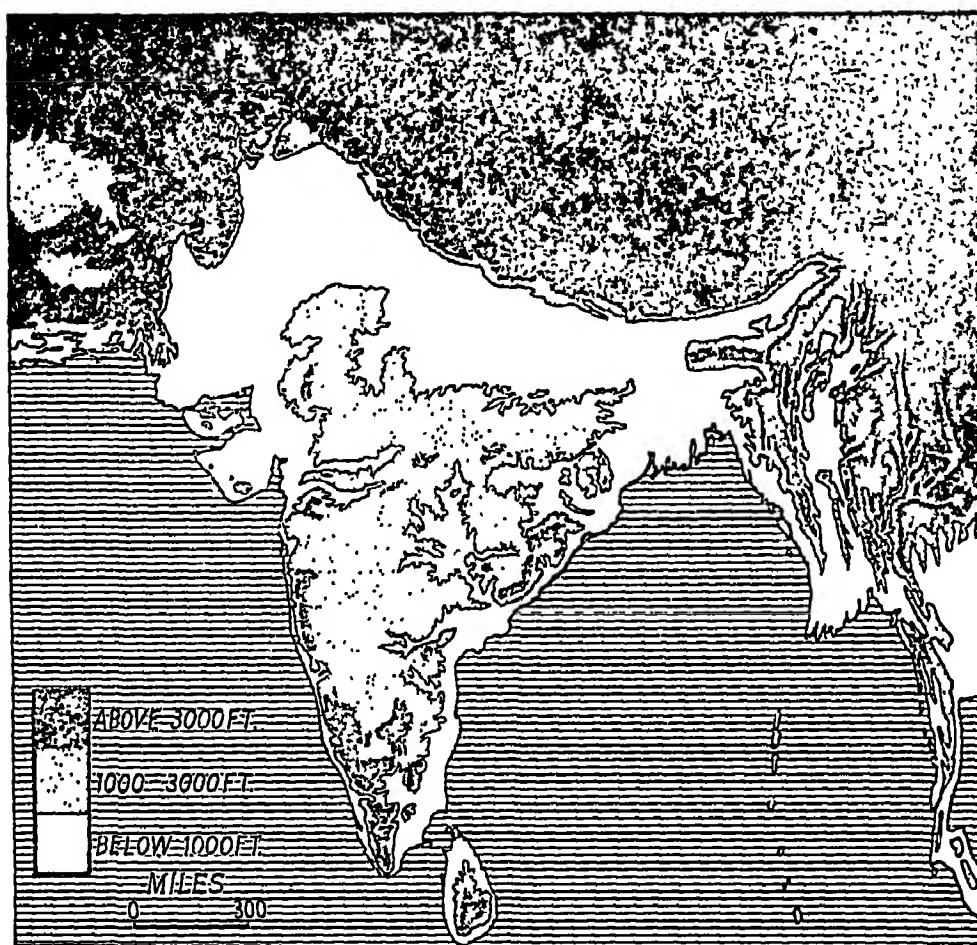


FIG. 13.—Contour or physical map of India.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Draw a sketch-map (from memory) showing the principal mountain ranges of India.
2. Divide India into physical regions ; use sketch-maps in your answer.
3. Describe the Basin of the Ganges.
4. Explain fully why contour lines cannot cross one another.
5. If a person entered India from the north-west on foot, show by sketch-maps the easiest way to Burma and to the south of India. Show clearly the physical features (mountain ranges, etc.).
6. If the sea rose 3,000 feet, what parts of India would remain above sea-level ?

CHAPTER III

GEOLOGY AND USEFUL MINERALS OF INDIA

1. **Geology.**—Geology is the science which tells us about the earth's crust and its structure. Geography tells us about the surface of the earth but geology goes deeper and deals with the crust itself and the changes which take place in it as well as on its surface.

We do not know very much about the inside of the earth. We know that it is very heavy and is probably a solid mass of iron. Outside this iron core is a layer which is very, very hot—so hot that the rocks are almost molten or liquid—and then outside this layer comes the solid earth's crust on which we live. Some parts of the crust stand out above the others and form the land; the lower parts are covered with water and form the oceans and seas.

We must have some name for the materials which make up the crust. The geologist calls them all 'rocks.'

2. **Rocks.**—There are rocks of all kinds, some are soft and some are hard. You perhaps think that the surface of the earth never changes, but when we study geology we learn that changes are gradually but continuously going on. The mountains are being worn away and the seas being filled up. Some rocks are being destroyed and others being formed. Thus we find that rocks are not all of the same age, some are younger than others. Every year the great rivers like the Ganges and the Irrawaddy are bringing down mud and dropping it near their mouths, so that the mud or 'alluvium' which makes up the deltas of the rivers is both a very young rock and a very soft one. As a rule the older the rock the harder it becomes. The layers of mud, sand and stones which are laid down by rivers in the sea or in lakes as well as sand and dust which are blown from one place to another by the wind all belong to one class of rocks—the Sedimentary Rocks. They all consist of little pieces of older rocks which have been broken off and carried to another place to be laid down as 'sediments.'

3. **Igneous Rocks.**—We said just now that below the solid earth's crust there is a layer which is very, very hot, so that the rocks are sometimes melted. We know that it gets hotter and hotter as we go downwards, for when a man goes down a deep mine he finds the air and rocks around him getting hotter and hotter. In some parts of the world there are holes or cracks through which the molten rock can come out. We call these holes or cracks volcanoes. The molten rock which comes up is called 'lava.' It is red-hot when it is first poured out, and takes a long time to cool. Sometimes one volcano is found all alone, at other times there are numbers of them close together in a line. There are now no volcanoes in India. There used to be a big solitary one in Central Burma, but now it is dead, or, as we say, 'extinct.' This volcano is Mount Popa. The lava which it has poured out has built up a mountain 5,000 feet high. Then a large part of the Indian Plateau is covered with lava which was poured out ages ago from a number of long cracks in the earth's crust. All these rocks which have been molten but which became solid on cooling are called Igneous Rocks.

4. **Metamorphic or Crystalline Rocks.**—When the sedimentary rocks have been made very hot by being near the big masses of molten rock, or by being buried deep in the crust, they have become quite changed and are called Metamorphic or Crystalline Rocks. They are usually very hard and if you look at them carefully you will see that they consist of shining pieces or crystals. If you live on the Indian Plateau, or in Ceylon you probably see these rocks every day of your lives.

5. **Earthquakes.**—Have you ever felt an earthquake? If you have you know that the earth suddenly begins to shake. That tells you that the crust of the earth is not perfectly still. As a result of the molten igneous rocks moving in the lower parts of the crust, the surface of the earth is not steady. Sometimes very large earthquakes occur and the rocks become folded or bent. In the course of long ages, small earthquakes and big earthquakes cause some parts of the earth's crust to rise up and form mountains whilst other parts are pressed down. Also the movements fold the rocks just as you can fold your exercise book if you lay it out on the desk and then press it from either side. In

this way big wrinkles are formed on the crust of the earth, just as you can see wrinkles on the skin of some mangoes. When sedimentary rocks are folded in this way they are compressed and made hard. The wrinkles form the lines of mountains of hard rocks and we call such mountains 'folded mountains.' Now you can understand why some parts of the country are built up of hard rocks whilst other parts consist of soft rocks easily worn away.

6. **Denudation.**—As soon as mountains and dry land are formed they commence, very gradually, to be worn away. The rain falls down and washes away the soft pieces; the sun dries up the rocks, makes them very hot and cracks them; the wind blows away the fine dust and sand. On cold mountain tops, the water in the cracks of the rocks becomes frozen and because water expands or gets larger when it freezes, pieces of rock are spilt off. Some rocks are gradually dissolved by water, others are broken up by the roots of plants. On the sea coast the waves dash against the coast and wear it away. All these processes of wearing away the rocks are called 'denudation.'

7. **The Work of Rivers.**—When the rain falls on the earth, part of it runs along the surface and collects together to form a small stream. The stream cuts for itself a little valley and washes away sand and stones, it joins other streams and forms a river. In the mountains, where the rivers are full of rushing water, deep V-shaped valleys are cut out, the river rolls along great boulders and stones as well as sand and mud. When the river reaches lower ground it becomes slower and its chief work is to carry along sand and mud. Have you ever watched one of the great rivers of India like the Ganges or Irrawaddy and noticed how muddy the water is? That mud has been brought from the distant mountains. Near the mouth the river becomes still slower and begins to drop its load of sand and mud and so builds up its delta. The material dropped by a river in this way is called alluvium. We can, then, divide a river's course into three parts—

(a) the upper course where its work is denudation or wearing away the land;

(b) the middle course where its work is transportation or carrying of material.

(c) the lower course where its work is deposition or building up the land.

8. **Valleys.**—Most valleys are cut out by rivers. At first the valley is V-shaped and narrow but gradually rain and smaller streams wear away its sides and it becomes broader. Then water does not flow straight but swings from side to side, so that the valley is widened still more until it becomes a valley plain. The river may deposit alluvium over its valley so that the valley becomes still flatter. Of course the soft rocks are worn away much more easily than hard rocks and while the valley amongst the hard rocks often remains deep and narrow, the soft rocks are soon worn away to form a plain.

9. **The Geology of India.**—The main features of the geology of India are very simple and fit in very well with the physical features. Study Fig. 14 carefully. The great mountain walls consist mainly of folded sedimentary rocks: they are 'fold mountains.' The Plain of Hindustan consists almost entirely of alluvium, and so do the coastal plains and of course the river deltas. The alluvium of the Ganges Valley is very thick—many hundreds of feet. In the Upper Ganges Valley and in the Punjab, there are hard pieces in the soft alluvium, called Kankar. The Indian Plateau and the Shan Plateau in Burma, as well as the Island of Ceylon (which is really a part of the Indian Plateau, cut off from the mainland) consist of metamorphic or crystalline rocks. We said in the last chapter that the Western Ghats are really the edge of the plateau and different from the mountains of Northern India. Geologically they are quite different too. The whole Plateau is a great mass of very very old crystalline rocks forced up bodily by earthquake movements. This old block was in existence long before the great Himalayan fold mountains were formed. Round the edge of the plateau are some old sedimentary rocks and covering a large part of its surface in the north-west are enormous sheets of lava—the Deccan Lavas. This is one of the largest areas of lava in the world. Scattered amongst the areas of old crystalline rocks there are usually some igneous rocks.

10. **Useful Minerals.**—Like the igneous rocks, the valuable ores of gold, silver, tin, copper, lead, zinc, and sometimes iron, have usually come up as molten rocks from the

heated lower layers of the earth's crust. As a result we nearly always find these valuable ores together with the igneous rocks, or in cracks amongst the old crystalline rocks. Look again at Fig. 14 and notice where the valuable ores are mined. Precious stones and gems also are found

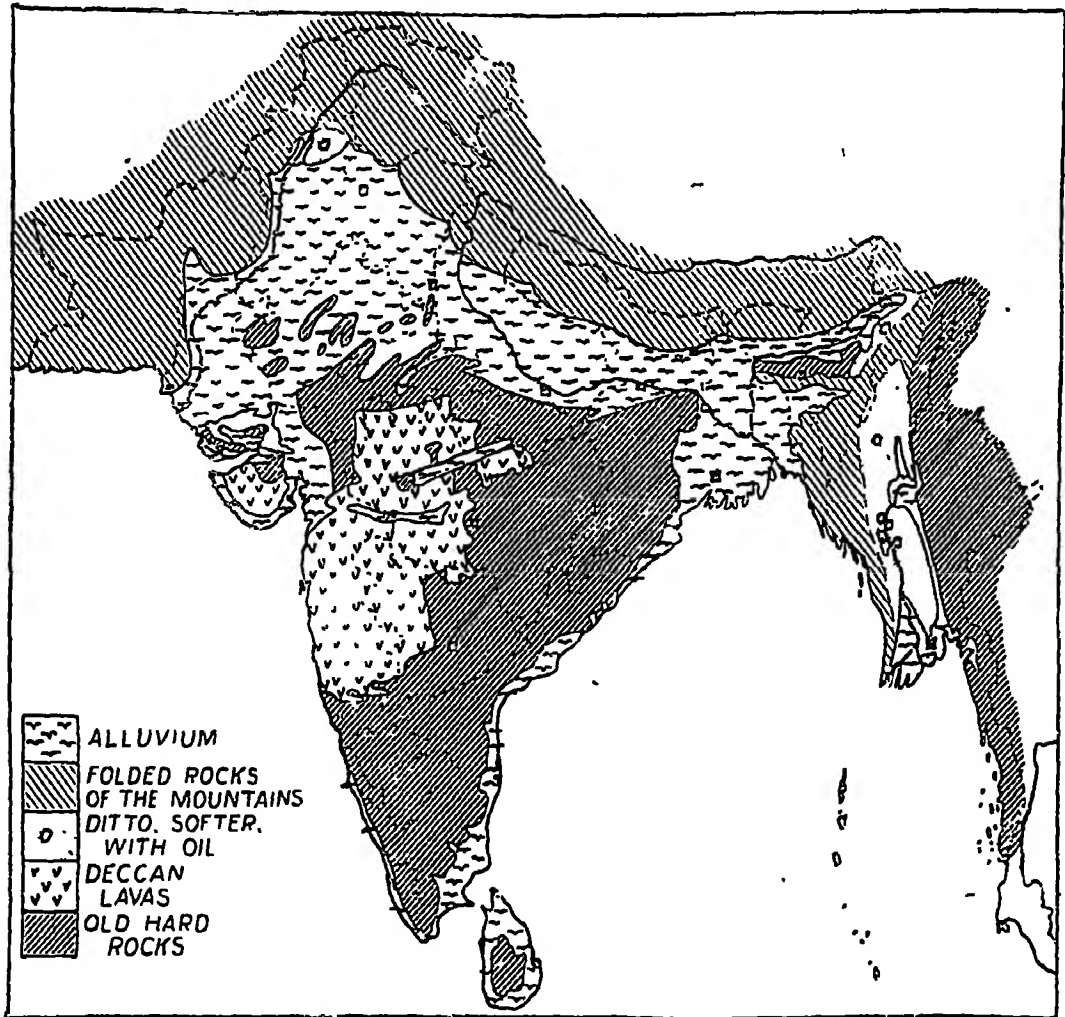


FIG. 14. Geological map of India.

Note.—In Ceylon the lowlands are marked as 'alluvium'. In the north they are really soft limestones and sands, in the other parts they are old hard rocks hidden by laterite.

with the crystalline rocks. We noted earlier in this chapter how even the hard rocks may be worn away and the pieces carried away. The valuable ores may be carried away like this and sometimes we find 'alluvial deposits' such as alluvial gold.

Two important minerals which always occur in the sedimentary rocks are coal and oil. Both of them have really been formed from vegetation—plants which grew in past ages, and perhaps animals which have been buried by masses of river sediments and have become changed into coal or oil. Oil occurs in the newer sedimentary rocks, but the best coal in the older sedimentary rocks. We do not find oil in rocks which have been very much folded, because there the oil would be squeezed out. So the oil fields are on the edges of the great fold mountains. By far the most important oilfields of the Indian Empire are in Central Burma (see Chapter xxxix).

Study Fig. 14 carefully and note where the important minerals occur.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Make a collection of all the different kinds of rock you can and bring the collections to school.
2. What is alluvium and how is it formed?
3. Why would you not expect to find oil and tin in the same place?
4. Describe the working of a volcano.
5. Write an account of denudation as you see it near your home.
6. How are earthquakes caused, and what effect do they have on the earth's crust?

CHAPTER IV

CLIMATE (TEMPERATURE)

1. **The Atmosphere or Air.**—Surrounding the earth like a blanket is the air or atmosphere. We cannot see it and so perhaps we may find it difficult to believe that it exists. But we can feel it when it is moving (as wind). Just move your hand backwards and forwards quickly and you will feel the rush of air against it. Scientists who have studied the air tell us that it consists of a mixture of gases. One of these is oxygen and without oxygen we could not live. When we breathe we take the oxygen into our bodies. There is also a very little of another gas in the atmosphere, called carbon dioxide which is no use to man or animals but which is used by plants. But more than three-quarters of the air consists of nitrogen which is not used either by plants or animals.

Air has weight and the top layers of the air press down on the lower layers, so that the pressure is greatest when we are on low ground or on the sea and have the whole weight of the air above us.

2. **Temperature.**—Temperature means amount of heat or cold. On some days you feel hot, that is the air is hot and makes you feel hot. Another way of saying the air is hot is to say the temperature of the air is high. When it is cold we say the temperature is low. The first thing that we must remember is that the air can be hot or cold or as we say its temperature varies.

The air receives its heat from the sun. You know how warm you get by sitting in the sun. The rays of heat come from the sun and strike on your body and make you feel hot.

The air is warmed by the sun in two ways. The rays of heat come from the sun, pass through the air and make it warm. The rays also strike the land and make it hot and then the air which is touching the land gets hot also. So we find

that the lowest layers of the air being in contact with the land are hotter than the upper layers.

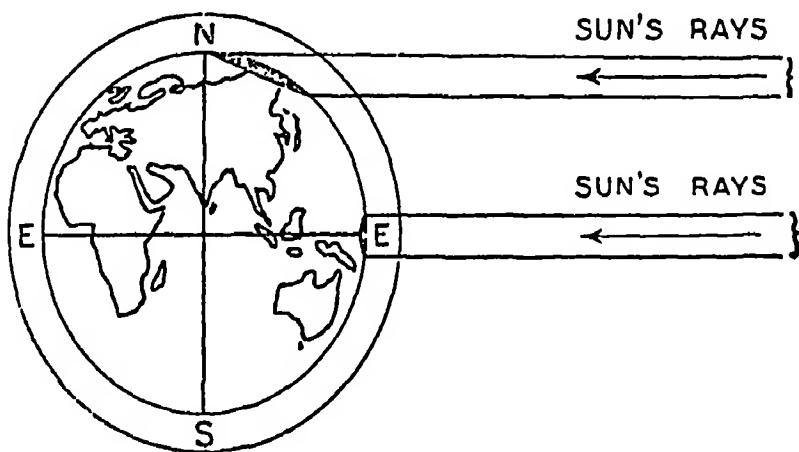


FIG. 15.—Diagram showing that at the poles the sun's rays are spread out over a large area and cannot make the earth so warm as in the Tropics.

You will now understand why countries near the equator are hotter than countries near the poles. Look at Fig. 15. Notice that the sun's rays shine almost vertically on countries near the equator but come down very obliquely on countries near the poles. That is, a certain number of heat rays from the sun are spread over a small area near the equator but the same number pass through a larger thickness of air and are spread over a much larger area of ground near the poles.

3. **Thermometers.**—The word 'thermometer' comes from two Greek words and means 'heat measurer'. It is easy to say that it is 'hot' or it is 'cold' but two people do not always agree whether a day is 'hot' or 'very hot'. We must have a more accurate way of measuring temperature and so we use thermometers. A thermometer consists of a glass tube with a bulb at one end and closed at the other. The bulb and part of the stem is filled with a liquid, usually mercury or alcohol. Now most things when they are heated get larger or 'expand'. Some substances, like glass and wood, only expand very slightly whilst others like mercury or alcohol expand very much. Now you will see what happens to the thermometer when the temperature increases. The mercury or alcohol expands much more than the glass tube and so the column of mercury or alcohol rises.

4. **Thermometer Scales.**—We can make our thermometer very hot indeed by putting it into boiling water. The mercury will then rise very high in the tube and we can

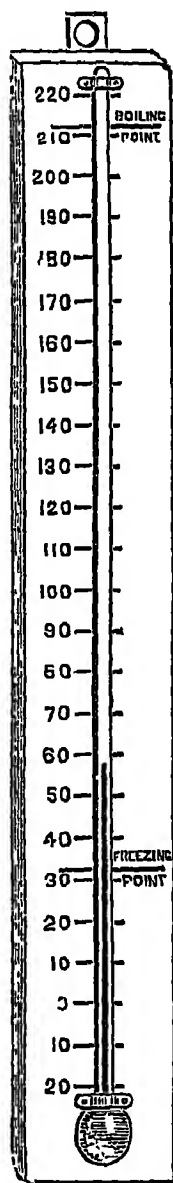


FIG. 16.—A Fahrenheit thermometer.

make a mark on the tube showing the height to which the mercury has risen. Then we can make our thermometer very cold by putting it into ice which is just melting and mark the level of the mercury in the same way. We now have two very important marks on our thermometer, one is 'Boiling Point' or the temperature of boiling water; the other is 'Freezing Point' or the temperature of melting ice. We can mount our thermometer on a piece of wood and put the marks on the wood. Look at Fig. 16 where this has been done. You will see 'Boiling Point' and 'Freezing Point' marked on the wood. There was once a famous scientist named Fahrenheit, who said that it would be much simpler if we called these points by numbers. So he called Freezing Point 32 degrees (written 32°) and Boiling Point he called 212 degrees. Between these two points he made $212 - 32 = 180$ little divisions. We call this the Fahrenheit scale and a thermometer marked as the one in Fig. 16 is called a Fahrenheit thermometer. That is the thermometer we shall use in this book.

There are also other 'scales' or ways of marking a thermometer. One of the most important is the Centigrade scale. Here Freezing Point is called 0° and Boiling Point 100° and there are 100 divisions or degrees between the two.

5. **Maximum and Minimum Thermometers.**—Have you ever woke up in the middle of the night and noticed how cold it has become? By the time you get up in the morning perhaps it is much warmer again. If you look at a thermometer it tells you the temperature just at the moment when you are looking at it. If it gets warmer it will go up, if it gets colder it will go down. If you wanted to know which was the hottest part of the day and which was

the coldest you would have to sit watching the thermometer all day long. Yet it is very important for us to know the highest and lowest temperatures reached during the day since half way between these two figures will be the average temperature for the day. In order that we should not have to watch the thermometers all day and all night we have two special kinds of thermometers. One is called a 'Maximum Thermometer' and records the maximum or highest temperature reached during the day; the other is

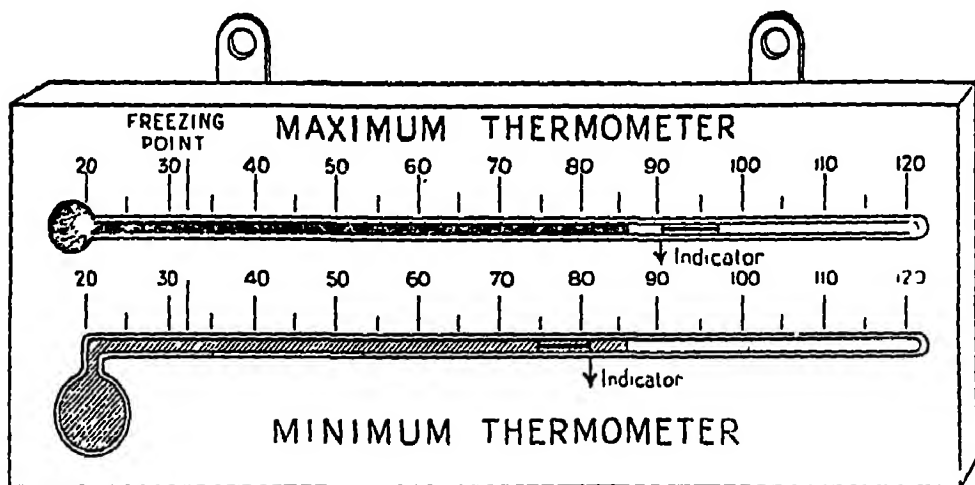


FIG. 17.—Picture of Maximum and Minimum Thermometers at Lahore.

called a 'Minimum Thermometer' and records the minimum or lowest temperature of the day. In Fig. 17 is a picture of the two thermometers mounted on one piece of wood. Look first at the Maximum Thermometer. It is filled with mercury. Inside the tube is a little glass or metal rod or 'indicator'. As the temperature increases and the mercury rises this little indicator is pushed by the mercury further and further along the tube. When the temperature drops again and the mercury falls, the little indicator is left behind and so shows us the highest temperature reached. The Minimum Thermometer is filled with alcohol. Here also there is a little glass indicator but this time it is inside the column of alcohol. As the temperature falls and the alcohol drops it drags the little indicator back with it. But when it rises, the alcohol flows past the indicator and does not move it. So the indicator marks the lowest temperature reached. When we have noted the highest and lowest temperatures, we can shake

the indicators back to their first position. Fig. 17 has been drawn very simply so that you can easily compare the two thermometers; usually the thermometers are mounted with their bulbs away from one another. One shake then sends both indicators to their proper position.

6. **Recording Temperatures.**—Throughout India there are stations where the temperature is carefully recorded day by day. It is usually the duty of all Government Hospitals to keep these records. Here is a page from a Record Book. The observations should be taken at the same time every day: usually at seven o'clock in the morning. The thermometers are hung up about five feet from the ground. Notice that for each day of the month the maximum and minimum temperatures are recorded. If we add these two figures together and divide by two we get the average temperature for the day.

1925	Temperature			Rainfall inches
	Maximum	Minimum	Mean	
October				
1	86.5	79.9		0.23
2	86.8	80.0		0.12
3	87.9	79.8		0.05
4	86.4	79.4		0.07
5	85.2	79.0		0.02
6	86.9	78.2		1.48
7	86.7	80.0		0.21
8	87.1	79.3		0.29
9	88.0	79.8		0.74
10	82.1	78.3		0.18
11	86.3	80.0		..
12	87.9	78.0		0.00
13	88.0	82.1		0.30
14	86.1	80.0		0.12
15	84.2	78.1		0.31
16	79.5	77.1		1.20
17	82.3	75.4		0.05
18	83.4	73.3		...
19	85.2	78.2		...
20	86.0	78.2		...
21	86.9	79.1		...
22	87.5	78.0		...
23	86.8	78.4		...

1925	Temperature			Rainfall inches
	Maximum	Minimum	Mean	
October				
24	85.6	78.8		...
25	85.4	79.1		...
26	85.4	76.6		...
27	86.4	78.9		...
28	87.5	78.8		0.07
29	86.8	78.0		...
30	85.2	78.6		...
31	85.8	78.8		...
	31)2661.8 85.9	31)2437.2 78.6		5.44

7. **Average Temperatures.**—Look again at the table above. The month of October has 31 days. If we add up the figures in column 3, that is the average daily temperatures and divide by 31 (the number of days in the month) we get what we call the average or mean temperature for the month of October, 1925. In the same way if we add up the figures in column 1 and divide by 31 we get the mean maximum temperature for the month. In the same way adding up column 2 and divide by 31 we get the mean minimum temperature.

Before we leave this subject we will make a note of a very common mistake. You cannot have such a thing as a 'Total Temperature' for the month. If you add up figures in any of the columns in the table above, the total means nothing until you divide it by the number of days. Just think about this for a little while. The thermometer is continually moving up and down and you cannot have a total amount of heat for the month or year. It is quite different in the case of rainfall, about which you will learn in a later chapter.

8. **Monthly Averages.**—In the last paragraph we learnt how to find the average temperature of the month of October, 1925. But the October of this year might be warmer or colder on the whole than in previous years. So we take the

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records of a number of years, as in the next table. If we add up and divide by the number of years we get the average October temperature for this place.

Year	Mean Monthly Temp.	Monthly Rainfall
October 1914	82.7	10.17
„ 1915	81.8	4.95
„ 1916	82.2	8.25
„ 1917	82.3	8.73
„ 1918	81.6	10.01
„ 1919	82.5	6.42
„ 1920	80.5	5.39
„ 1921	81.9	3.45
„ 1922	81.2	5.10
„ 1923	79.9	9.21
„ 1924	80.4	6.76
„ 1925	82.2	5.44
	12)979.2 81.6°	12)83.88 6.99 in.

The bottom figure in column 1, 81.6°F., is the normal monthly temperature of October, and is based on the average for twelve years, 1914 to 1925. The bottom figure in column 2, 6.99 inches, is the normal monthly rainfall of October, based on the average for the same twelve years.

In the same way we can get the average temperature for each month of the year. If we talk about the November temperature of a place this is what we mean: the average temperature during November for a number of years. Two of the most important months to study are January (usually the coldest month in India) and July (six months later and one of the hottest months).

9. **January Temperature in India.**—Now let us compare the January temperature of a number of places in India. At this season of the year the sun is shining vertically over countries south of the equator. Now we have learnt that India is north of the equator. The sun, then, is shining vertically over places a long way south of India. From what we said in paragraph 2 of this chapter we should expect India to be cool at this season and we should expect

the north of India to be colder than the south. One more point, we have learnt that the higher one goes up in the air the colder it becomes. So we should expect places in the hills and mountains to be colder than places on the plains. Let us see if this is actually the case.

Place.	Average temperature in January			
Colombo (Ceylon)...	80·0
Madras	76·1
Rangoon (Burma)...	76·7
Bombay...	75·2
Mandalay (Burma)	70·5
Calcutta...	66·4
Delhi	58·8
Lahore	54·7
Simla (7,000 feet high)	40·4
Srinagar (6,000 feet high)	33·5
Ootacamund (7,000 feet high)	54·0

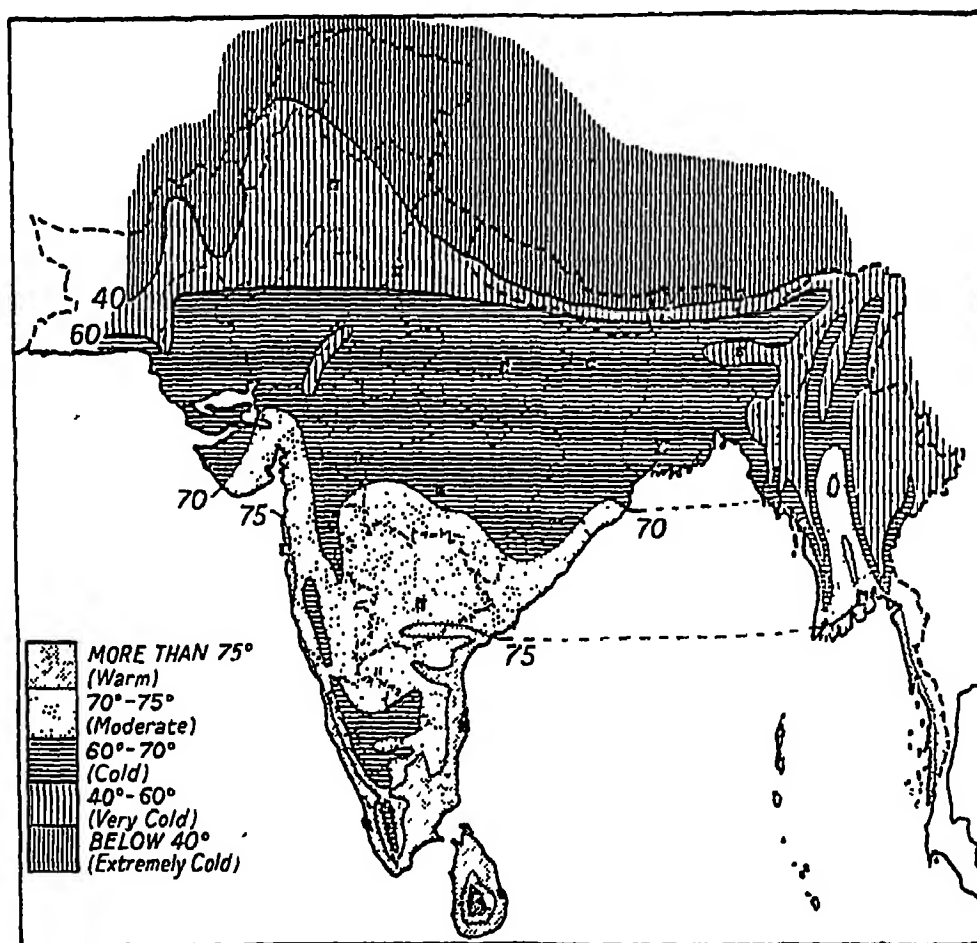


FIG. 18.—Temperature map of India for January.

We see that it is so. Now there are very many more places than these where temperature records are kept. So we can draw a map of India marking against each place the

January temperature. We can make our map clearer by using different kinds of shading. This has been done in Fig. 18 which is a temperature map of India for the month of January. You will see at once the coldest places are in the north and the mountains, the warmest places, are the plains in the south.

10. **July Temperature in India.**—Now let us see what happens in July. At this season of the year the sun is shining vertically over lands north of the equator, that is over the northern part of India. We should expect India at this season to be a very hot country and we should expect the north to be hotter than the south. We find that such is the case, and again places in the mountains are colder than places on the plains.

Place				Average temperature in July
Colombo	85.0
Madras	87.3
Rangoon	80.6
Bombay...	81.1
Mandalay	86.7
Calcutta...	78.6
Delhi	80.9
Lahore	90.3
Simla	64.5
Srinagar	74.5
Ootacamund	56.9

In Fig. 19 we have drawn a temperature map of India for July. Although, on the whole, the north is hotter than the south we find the map is not so regular as the January map. That is largely because of two reasons. Firstly land gets hot much more quickly than water and so level plains like the Punjab far from the sea are hotter than places near the sea. Secondly where there are many clouds and much rain, the full force of the sun does not strike the ground and the heat is less. Very dry regions like the Punjab and Central Burma thus tend to be the hottest.

11. **Daily Range of Temperature.**—You all know that it is hotter during the day than it is at night. In some places the difference is only small, in others it is very great. The difference between the highest and lowest temperature reached during the day is called the daily range of temperature. Look back at Fig. 17 which is a picture of the maximum and minimum thermometers as seen by an

observer at Lahorè. Notice that the maximum thermometer has there been up to 105° and the minimum down to 73° . The difference, or Daily Range of Temperature is $105-73$

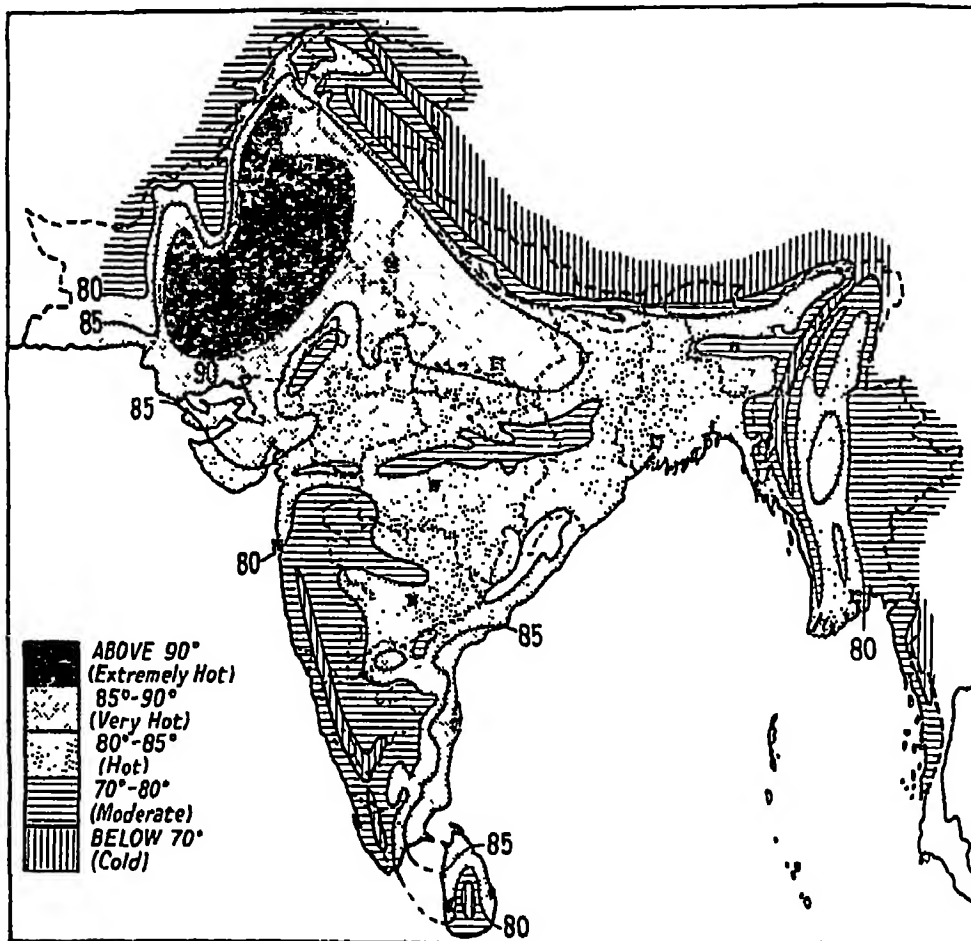


FIG. 19.—Temperature map of India for July. In the east of Peninsular India there is a small area left unshaded. What should the shading be and why?

or 32° . This is a very big 'Daily Range'. Now look at Fig. 20. This is a picture of thermometers at Bombay. The daily range shown is $90-81$, or only 9° . This is a very small difference. The reason for this you will learn in the next chapter.

12. Annual Range of Temperature.—You have learnt how to find the average temperature for each month. Now let us see how the average temperature varies from month to month. Fig. 21 shows you by little pictures the average temperature in Lahore for each month of the year. You will see that June is the hottest month and January the coldest month. You will also see that in June the thermometer reads 39 degrees ($=93^{\circ}-54^{\circ}$) more than it

does in January. That is, in June in Lahore, there are, on an average, 39 degrees more heat than in January.

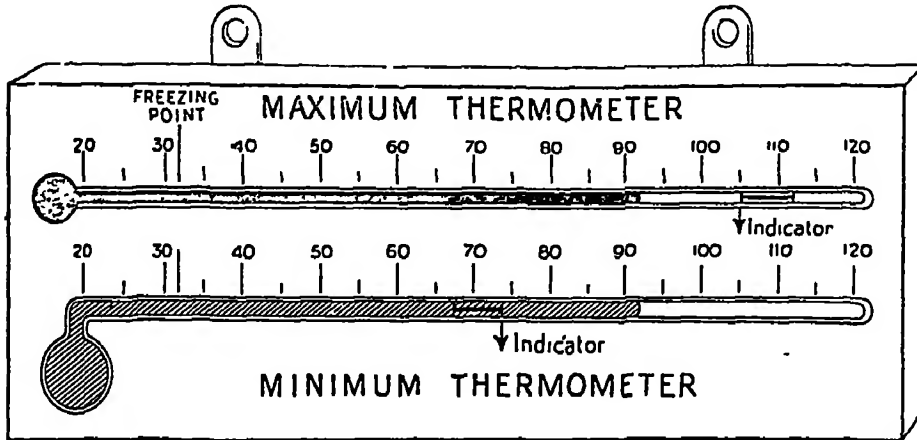


FIG. 20.—Picture of Maximum and Minimum Thermometers at Bombay.

Fig. 22 shows the temperature in Karachi for each month of the year. Again the hottest month is June and the coldest January but the difference is only 22 degrees.

The difference between the hottest and coldest month is called the 'Yearly or Annual Range of Temperature'. In Fig. 23 (Bombay) the range is only 10 degrees. In Fig. 24 (Nagpur) the range is $27\frac{1}{2}$ degrees. In Fig. 25 (Madras) the range is 14 degrees. In Fig. 26 (Trivandrum) the range is only 5 degrees; in Calcutta (Fig. 27) it is 20 degrees. Notice in each case that the hottest month is not always the same. What can we learn from these figures? We learn that the greatest range is found in places on the plains far from the sea, the least range is found in damp places near the sea and near the equator. The reason is the same as that which we noted in the last paragraph. Notice also that places with a big daily range have also a big annual range.

Before we leave this subject let us look at one place in the mountains. Fig. 28 shows you the monthly temperatures at Simla, over 7,000 feet above the level of the sea. For the whole year Simla is much colder than any of the places near by on the plains.

13. **Isotherms.**—We know that for every 300 feet we mount up a hillside the air gets one degree cooler, so that the tops of the mountains are very cold. That does not

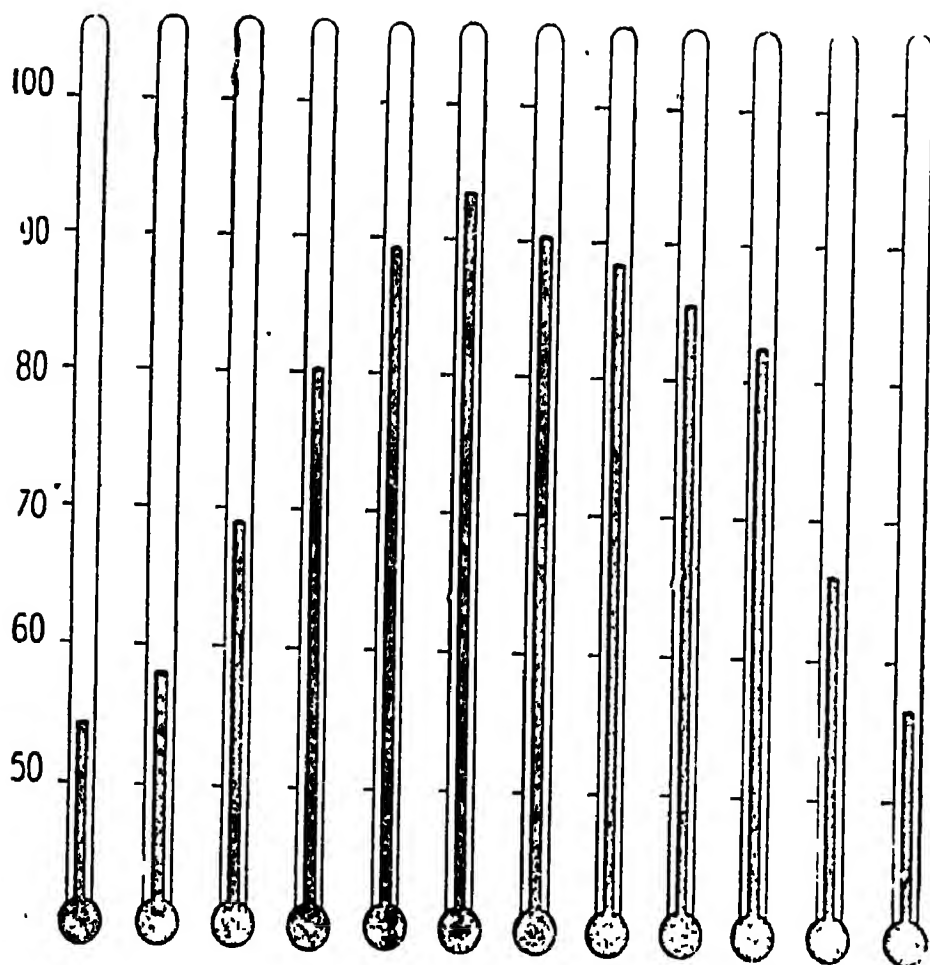
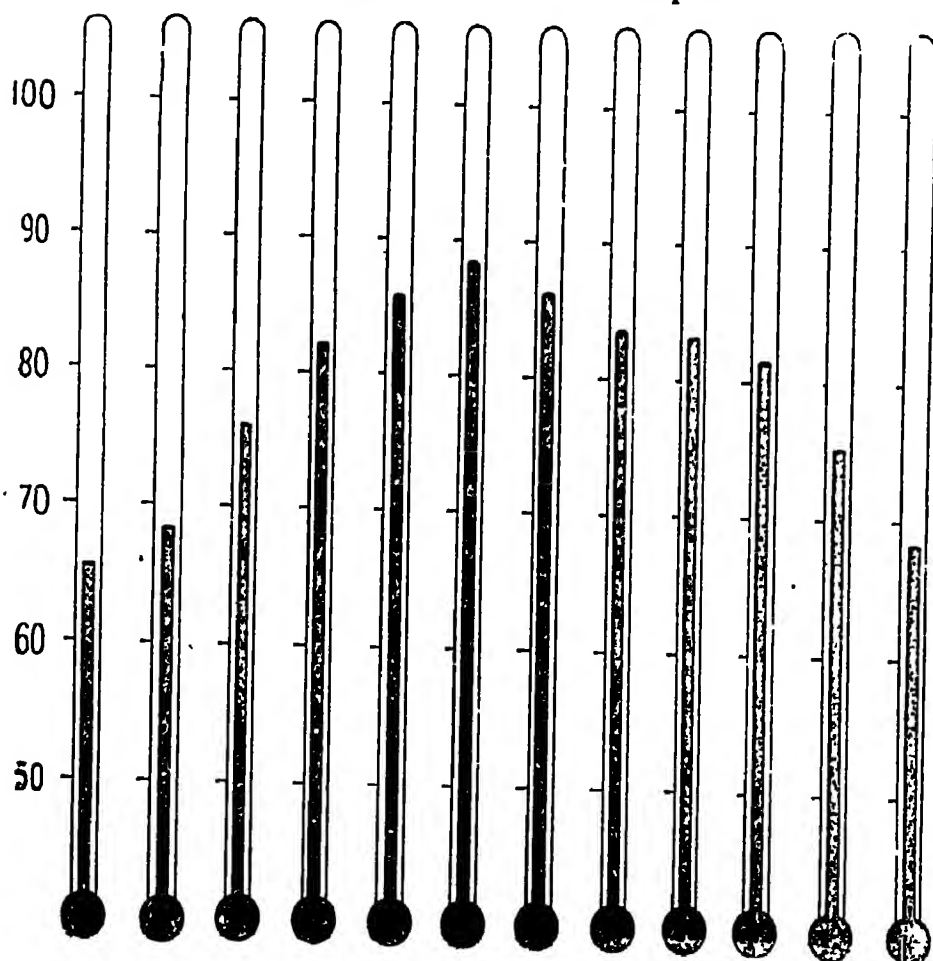


FIG. 21.—Diagram of Lahore temperature.



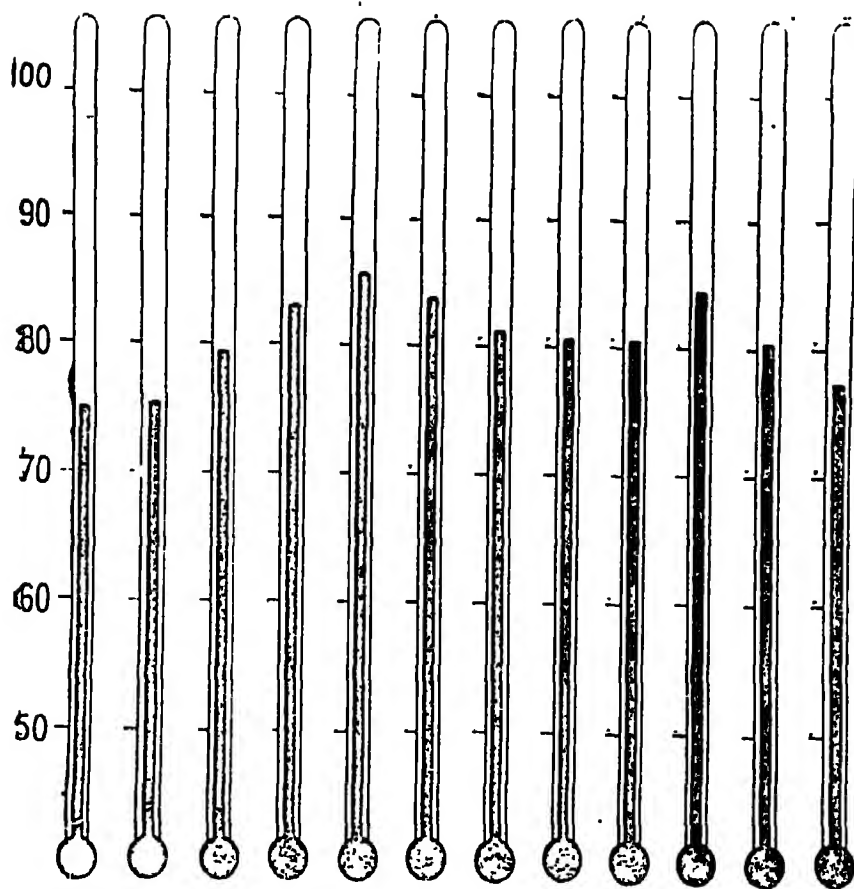


FIG. 23.—Diagram of Bombay temperature.

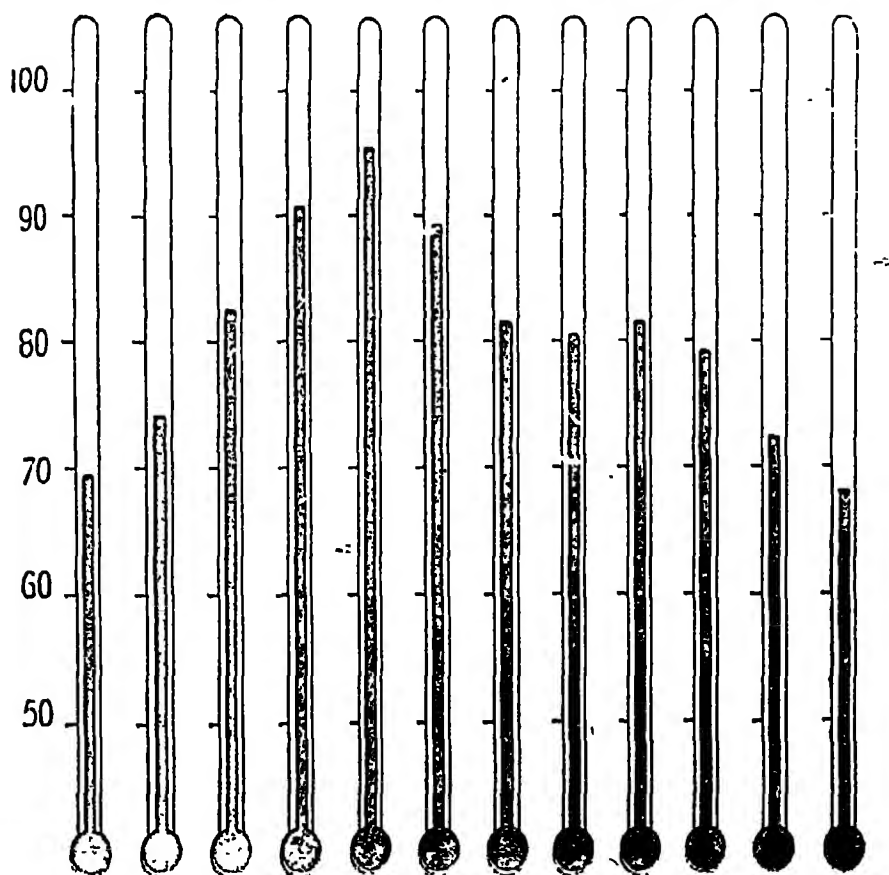


FIG. 24.—Diagram of Nagpur temperature.

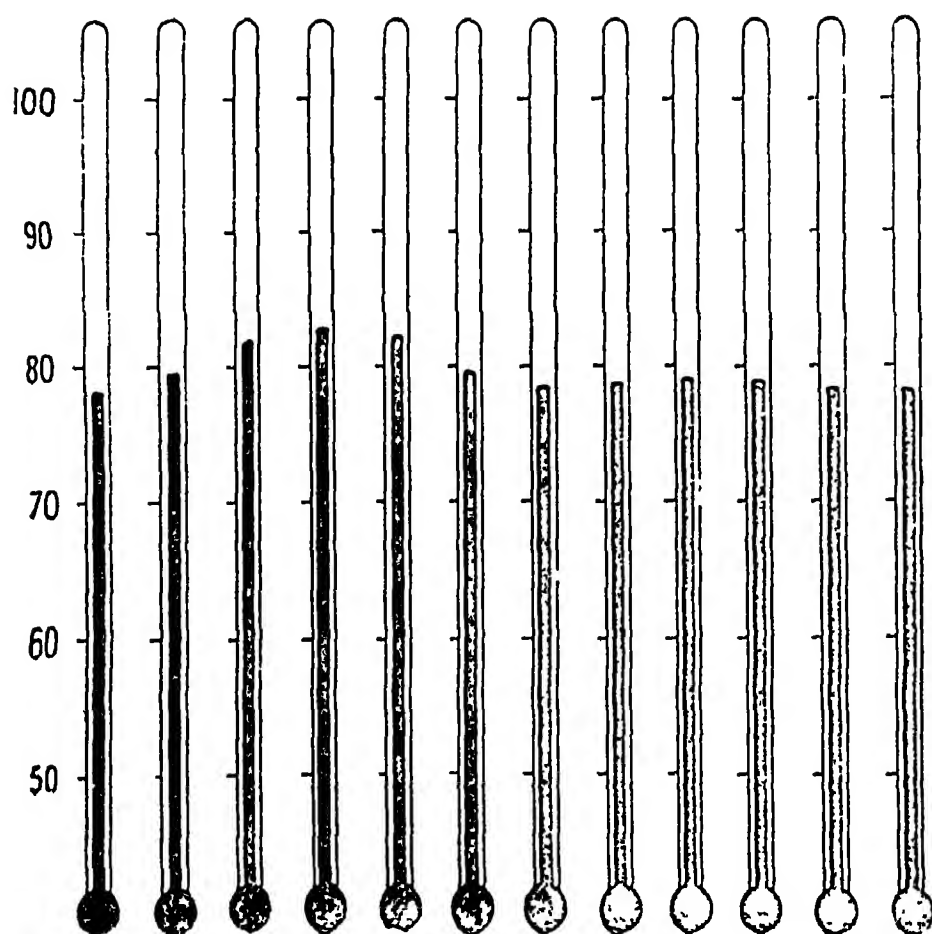


FIG. 25.—Diagram of Madras temperature.

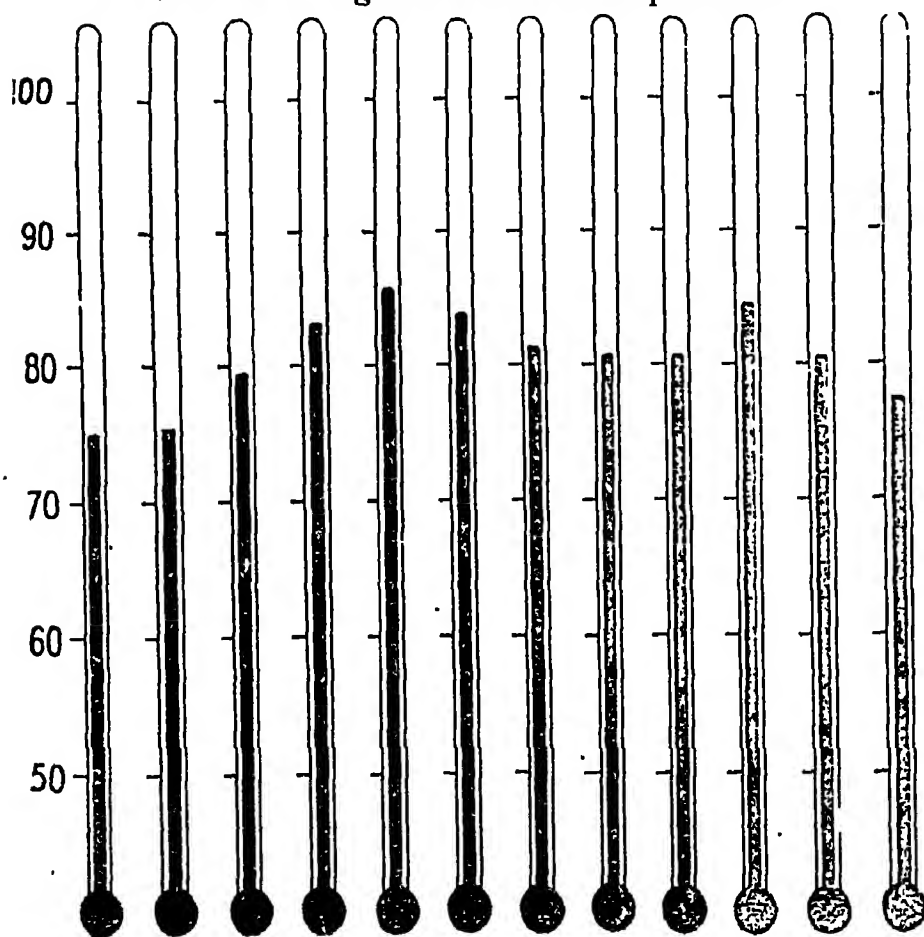


FIG. 26.—Diagram of Trivandrum temperature.

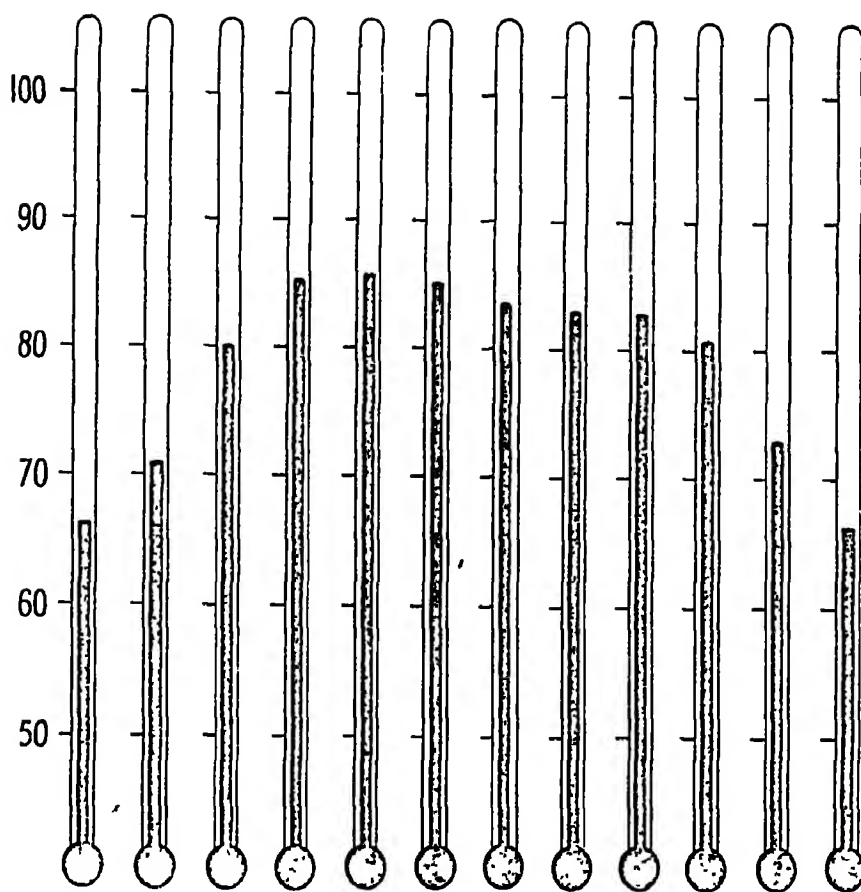


FIG. 27.—Diagram of Calcutta temperature.

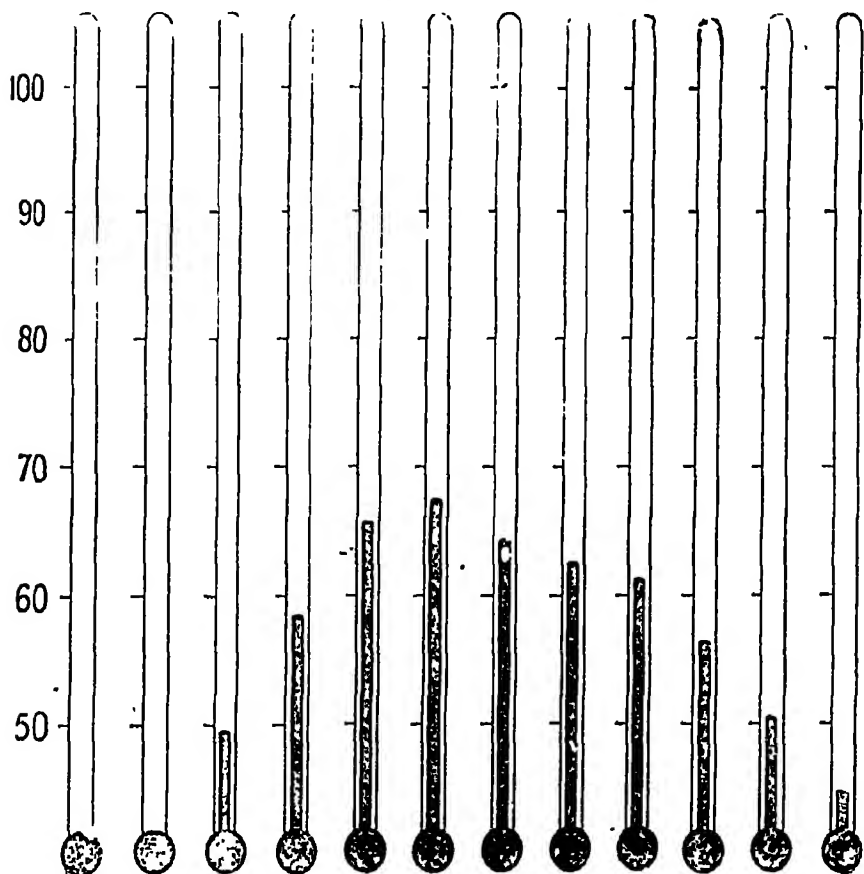


FIG. 28.—Diagram of Simla temperature.

matter to us very much, because very few people live on the tops of the mountains. Yet in the hills there are many valleys where people do live, and temperature of these places cannot always be shown in such maps as Figs. 18 and 19 without making the maps so full of different sorts of shading that they would not show anything clearly. You must remember, then, that Figs. 18 and 19 are only roughly correct in the hilly regions as they cannot show all the warmer valleys or the very cold hill-tops. Some countries have no great broad plains but consist just of a mass of mountains and valleys and the temperature of one place in a valley is quite different from that of another place a few miles away on a hill. In such a country the best thing to do is to take no notice of the height of the land as far as temperature is concerned. Since the temperature gets 1 degree less for every 300 feet we climb upwards, we are able to make the temperature of hilly places correspond with the temperature of places at sea-level. In order to do this we add one degree to the thermometer reading for every 300 feet a place is above sea-level. Thus if a village is situated 2,100 feet above sea-level, and we know its temperature is 63 degrees, we can imagine that if the same village were situated at sea-level its temperature would be 63° plus 7°, because 2,100 feet is seven times 300 feet and we must add 1° seven times to the thermometer reading. This is called 'Reducing the temperature to sea-level'. We can now draw a map of a country without taking any notice of hills or mountains. We just mark on the map all places where thermometer readings are made and mark against each the temperature when reduced to sea-level. We can then draw a line through all places marked with the same temperature. Such a line is called an 'isotherm'. An isotherm is thus an imaginary line drawn through all places having the same temperature when reduced to sea-level. We can draw isotherms of monthly temperature for different months of the year. Fig. 29 is an isotherm map of Burma for the month of July. Compare it with Fig. 19.

In India, however, it is more important to study actual temperature, for then you can realize the importance of the cold mountain wall, and the great heat of the plains when the sun is shining over them.

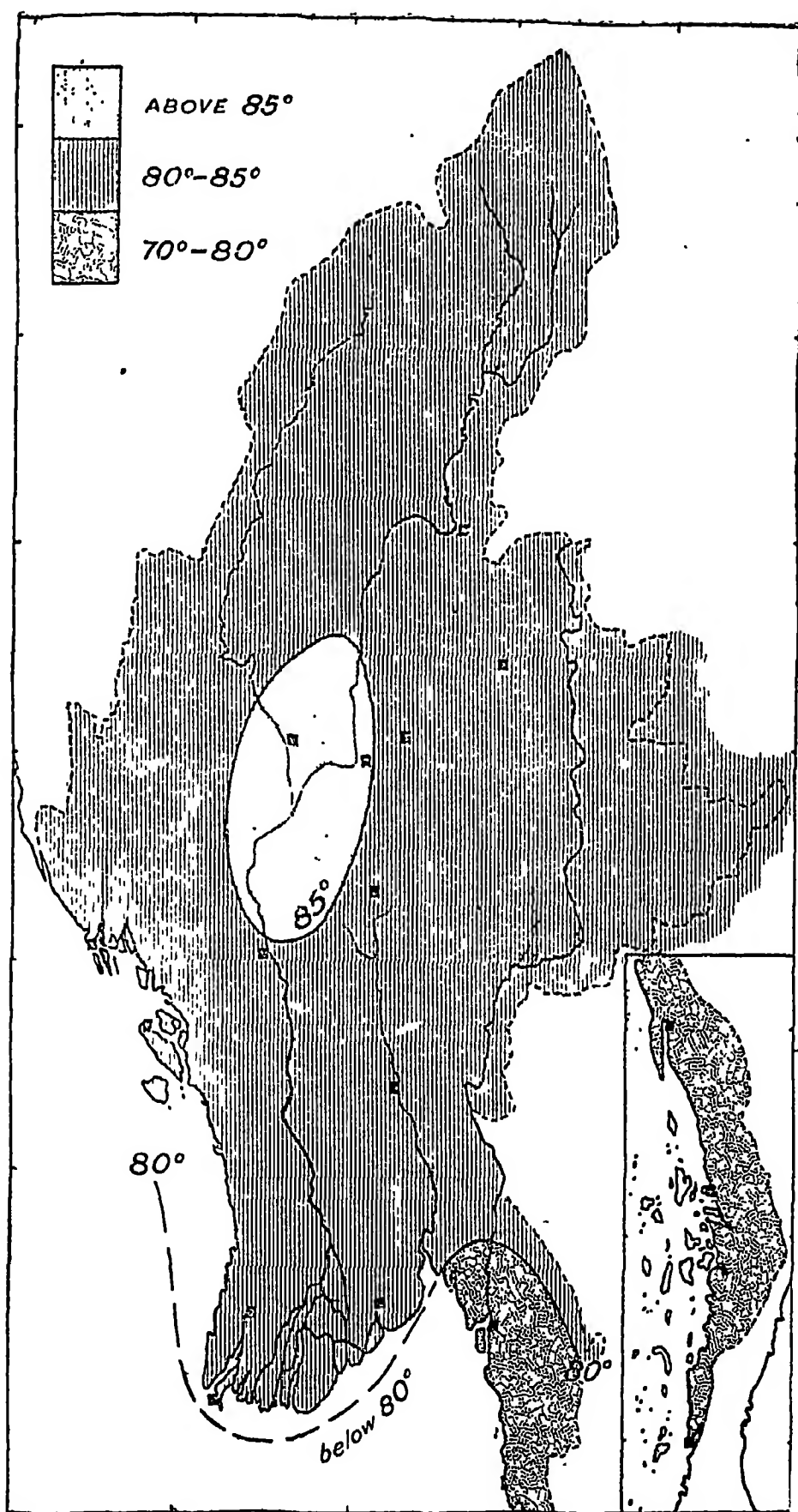


FIG. 29.—Isotherm map of Burma for the month of July.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Draw a picture, showing on the same scale a Centigrade Thermometer and a Fahrenheit Thermometer.

2. For the 24 hours ending at noon on December 7, 1923, the maximum thermometer at Rangoon read 87.5° and the minimum 74.9° . Draw sketches showing the appearance of the two thermometers when they were seen by the man in charge.

3. What isotherms pass through the following places :—

Calcutta	... sea-level	65°	(January)
Darjeeling	... 7,200	42°	(January)
Simla	... 7,200	39°	(January)
Lhasa	... 12,000	27°	(January)
Karachi	... sea-level	65°	(January)
Bangalore	... 3,000	70°	(January)

4. What is the range of temperature between January and July at Trivandrum, Madras, Bombay and Simla? Is this the same as the Annual Range of Temperature?

5. Compare carefully Figs. 13, 18 and 19.

Write a list of the principal mountain ranges and say what you notice concerning their temperatures.

6. Look at Fig. 19. What is the meaning of the areas of ' more than 85° ' shading in the middle of Peninsular India and in Central Burma? Why are they there?

CHAPTER V

CLIMATE (WIND)

1. **Temperature and Pressure.**—Cold air is heavier than warm air. When, therefore, the air becomes heated it becomes lighter and tries to rise upwards, whilst the colder, heavier air flows in to take its place. Now when the air is trying to rise *upwards*, it will not be pressing down so heavily on the surface of the earth. So that, although we always have many layers of air above us, the air does not always exert the same pressure. In other words we have regions of high pressure and regions of low pressure.

We have an instrument for measuring the pressure of the air. It is called a 'Barometer' from two Greek words meaning 'heavy' and 'measure'. It really measures the 'heaviness' of the air.

If you think about it for a moment you will understand that the pressure gets less as we go upwards, so that it is very small on the top of mountains. Just as we took the temperature of places on the hills and reduced it to sea-level, so we can reduce the pressure of hill-stations to their sea-level equivalents. You remember that lines drawn through places of equal temperature were called 'Isotherms'. Lines drawn through places of equal pressure when reduced to sea-level are called 'Isobars'.

There is one golden rule about pressure for you to remember. Taking sea-level pressures air always moves from regions of high pressure to regions of low pressure. Moving air we call wind, and so, in other words, the wind blows from regions of high pressure to regions of low pressure.

2. **Land and Sea Breezes.**—People who live near the sea coast often feel a strong breeze blowing from the sea. It blows during the afternoon but dies away in the evenings. We always name a wind after the direction *from* which it blows, so as this wind blows *from* the sea it is called a 'sea breeze'. The cause of it is this. The sun shines

equally on the land and on the sea but the land takes in the sun's heat much more easily than the water does. This you can prove for yourself on a hot day by touching the dry ground with one hand while you put the other into the water of a stream. You will find the land hotter than the water. When the land becomes heated, the air over it becomes heated also and the air over the land is hotter than the air over the sea. The warm light air over the land rises and the cooler, heavier air from the sea flows in to take its place causing a cool, refreshing 'sea breeze'. Fig. 30 illustrates this movement by means of arrows.

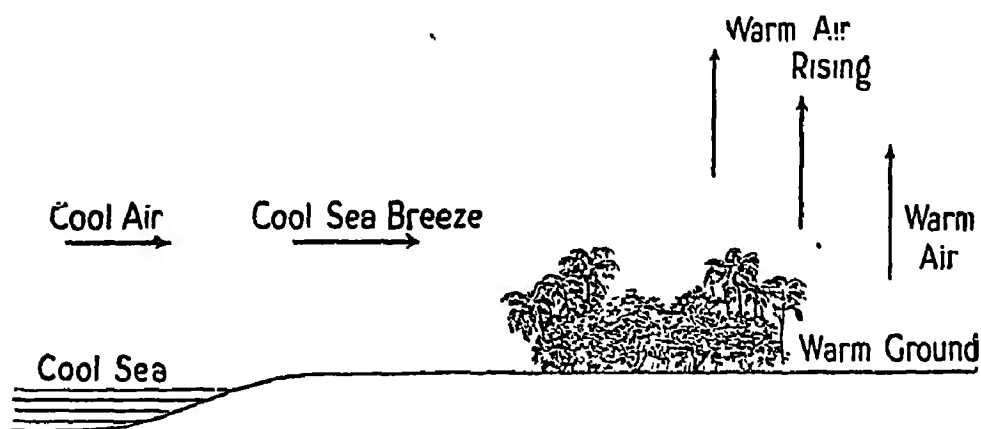


FIG. 30.—Land and Sea Breezes.

After the sun has set, land and water begin to get cooler but the land loses its heat much more quickly than the water. Soon the land becomes cooler than the sea, and the air over the sea, being now the warmer, rises, and the colder, heavier air from the land flows in to take its place forming a 'land breeze'. The land breeze blows during the night and dies away in the early morning. Land and Sea Breezes are good examples of 'periodic winds', that is winds which blow for certain periods only and not constantly.

3. **The North-East Monsoon.**—That which happens along the sea coast is a small example of what is going on in the huge continent of Asia. Let us look first of all at the conditions during the cold season. Turn again to Fig. 18, the temperature map of India for January. The north of India is then cold, and it gets gradually warmer as we go southwards. The warm light air over the ocean to the south of India is rising and the cold heavy air from the land to the north flows in to take its place. In the cold

season we have, then, a land wind from the north. Owing to the rotation of the earth it does not blow directly from north to south, but is twisted and actually comes from the north-east. In India we often call it the 'North-East Monsoon Wind' but it is part of a great wind system which we find north of the equator all round the world and which we call the North-East Trade Wind.

4. **The South-West Monsoon.**—During the months of May to September the sun is shining vertically over India and the land becomes very hot indeed. Look again at Fig. 19 and notice the great July heat over the plains of the Punjab and over the centre of Burma. The hot air over the land rises and the cool, heavy air from the sea blows in to take its place. This wind, too, is twisted by the rotation of the earth and its normal direction is from the south-west and so it is called the 'South-West Monsoon'. It commences to blow, in most parts of India, in June and continues to the end of September or October. Here we have another example of a 'periodic wind'.

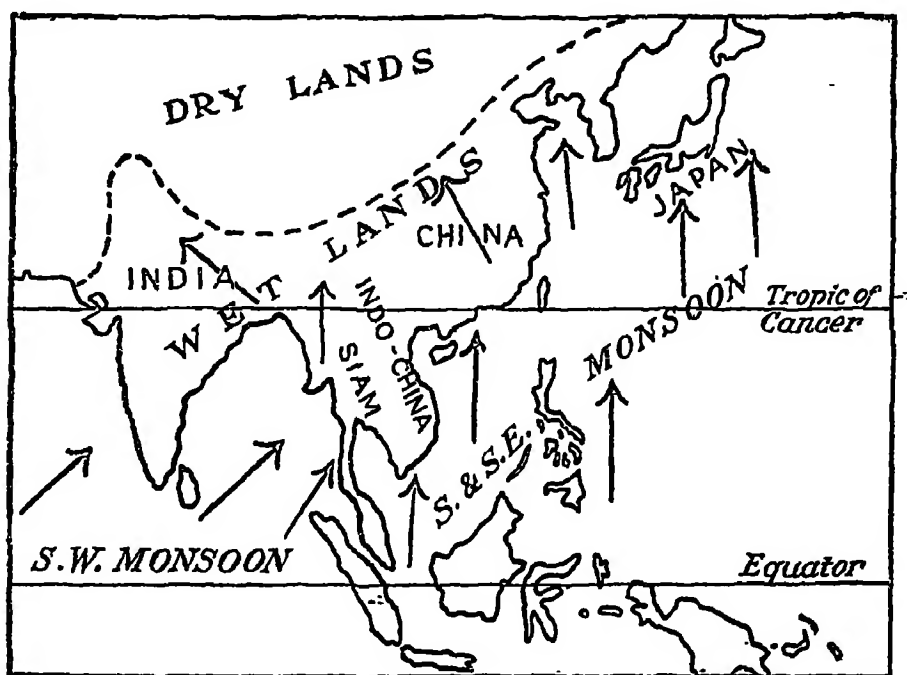


FIG. 31.—The Monsoon lands of Asia.

5. **The Monsoon Lands.**—In the matter of the Monsoon winds India and Burma are part of a much larger climate system which includes nearly all South-east Asia. Like

India, Indo-China, China and Japan also have monsoon winds, as you see in Fig. 31.

In Chapter II you learnt that there are certain parts of North-western India lying outside the great mountain wall. These parts are Baluchistan and part of Kashmir. The South-West Monsoon, being sucked into the great low

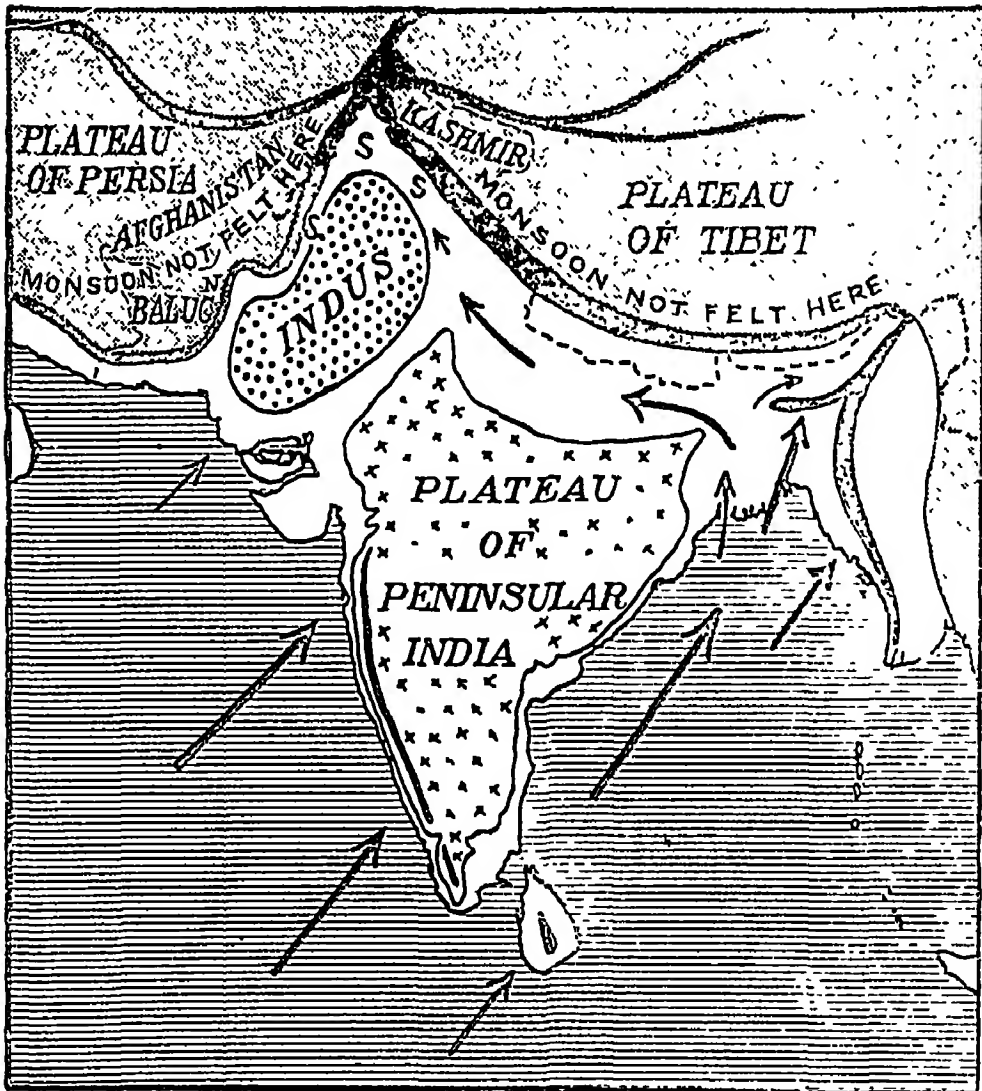


FIG. 32.—The Monsoon Regions of Asia.

pressure area of the Punjab Plains does not blow over the great mountain rampart and so Baluchistan and Northern Kashmir are *outside* the Monsoon Region. They belong to the 'Dry Lands' of Central Asia. Fig. 32 shows you clearly those parts of India which are outside the influence of the monsoon.

6. Direction of the Monsoon Winds.—The South-West Monsoon does not blow from the south-west in every part of India and Burma. The following table shows its direction in some places :—

Place			Direction of Monsoon
Bombay	W.S.W.
Madras...	S.W.
Rangoon	S.W.
Mandalay	S.
Calcutta	S.
Allahabad	E.
Delhi	S.E.

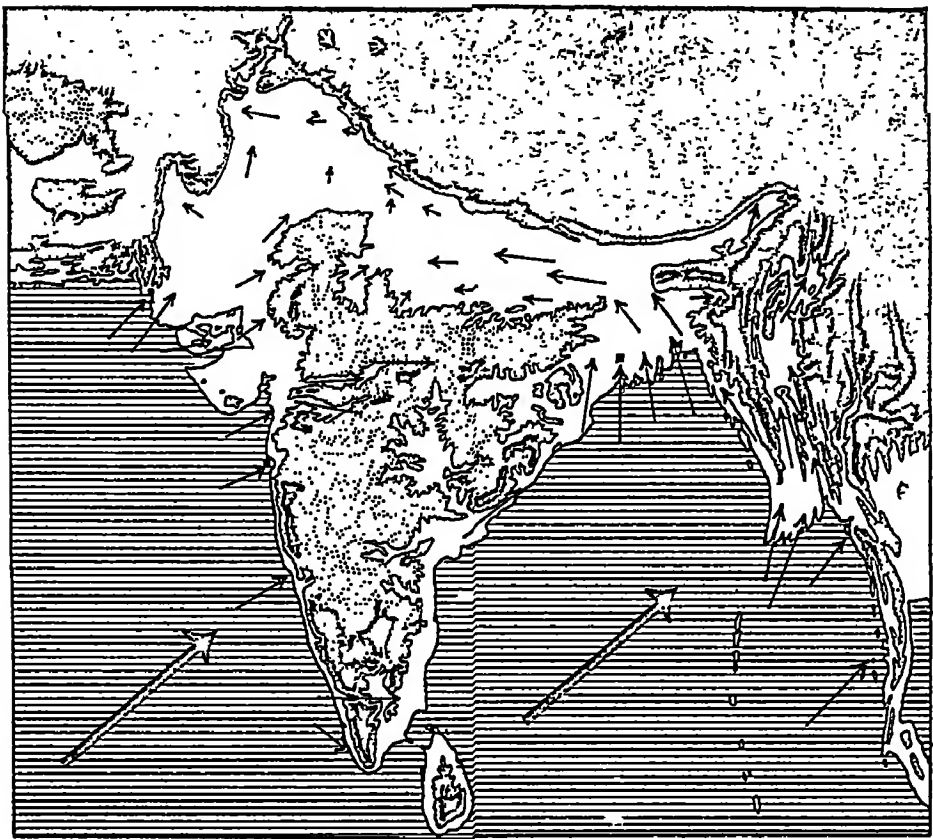


FIG. 33.—Map of India showing Monsoon arrows.

If these directions are shown on a map of the mountains of India, the reason for the differences becomes clear. The direction of the wind over the land depends largely on the direction of the mountain ranges and the river valleys. It is much easier for the wind, just as it for men, to travel along valleys than to cross hills. Study Fig. 33 carefully and notice the reason for the direction of the arrows in each

case. The Plateau of Peninsular India really divides the monsoon into two halves. One half, called the Bengal stream, blows over the Bay of Bengal and up the Ganges Valley. The other half, called the Arabian Sea Stream, blows over the Arabian Sea and strikes the Western Ghats or the hot dry lands of Kathiawar and Cutch.

The direction of the North-East Monsoon is also controlled by the mountain ranges in just the same way.

7. **The Sea and Temperature.**—In the last chapter we learnt that places near the sea have a small daily and a small annual range of temperature. This is because the sea takes a long time to get warm in the hot weather, and only loses its heat very slowly in the cold season. The temperature of the sea does not vary nearly so much as the temperature of the land. So we find that places near the sea are kept cool in the hot weather and warm in the cold weather.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. What do you think is the normal direction of the South-West Monsoon at Karachi, Peshawar, Nagpur, Patna, Akyab and Colombo?

2. Explain by sketch maps the reason for the direction of the wind at Jubbulpore (W. in July, E. in January).

CHAPTER VI

CLIMATE (RAINFALL)

1. **Evaporation.**—Have you noticed what happens after rain when the sun comes out? The drops of water lying on the ground and the small pools of water soon disappear and the ground becomes dry. Where has the water disappeared to? It has been changed from liquid water which we can see, into water vapour which we cannot see, but which floats away in the air. This change of liquid water into water vapour is called *evaporation*. The air is like a thirsty boy, continually drinking up all the water it can find. The hotter the air the thirstier it is. Cold air cannot hold nearly as much moisture or water vapour as hot air. Air, even if it is very hot, cannot drink up water where there is none. So we find that hot air over dry land, or wind blowing from the land is usually *dry*. But the air over the sea, or wind blowing from the sea, especially in hot regions, is very moist.

2. **Condensation.**—Cold air cannot hold as much moisture as warm air. If moist warm air is cooled, there comes a stage when it contains as much water vapour as it can possibly hold, it is then said to be *saturated*. If it is cooled still more, some of the water vapour is changed back into liquid water. At first little tiny particles of water appear in the air (forming clouds or mist). Then the tiny particles collect together and fall to the earth as rain. If it is very cold (below freezing point) the little drops may be changed into ice, forming hail or snow. The change from the invisible water vapour back into drops of water is called *condensation*.

3. **Dew.**—Condensation may also take place on the surface of the ground. At night when the earth gets very cold it makes the air near it cold also and the air drops some of its water vapour on to the surface of the ground. This water is called dew. This explains why the fields are often wet in the early morning although there has been no rain.

4. Rain.—There are several different ways in which warm, moist air may be cooled so as to cause rain.

(a) The wind, that is the moving air, containing the moisture, may be blowing towards a cooler place.

(b) You have learnt that as we ascend a mountain it becomes colder. That is because the higher layers of the atmosphere are colder than the lower layers. If

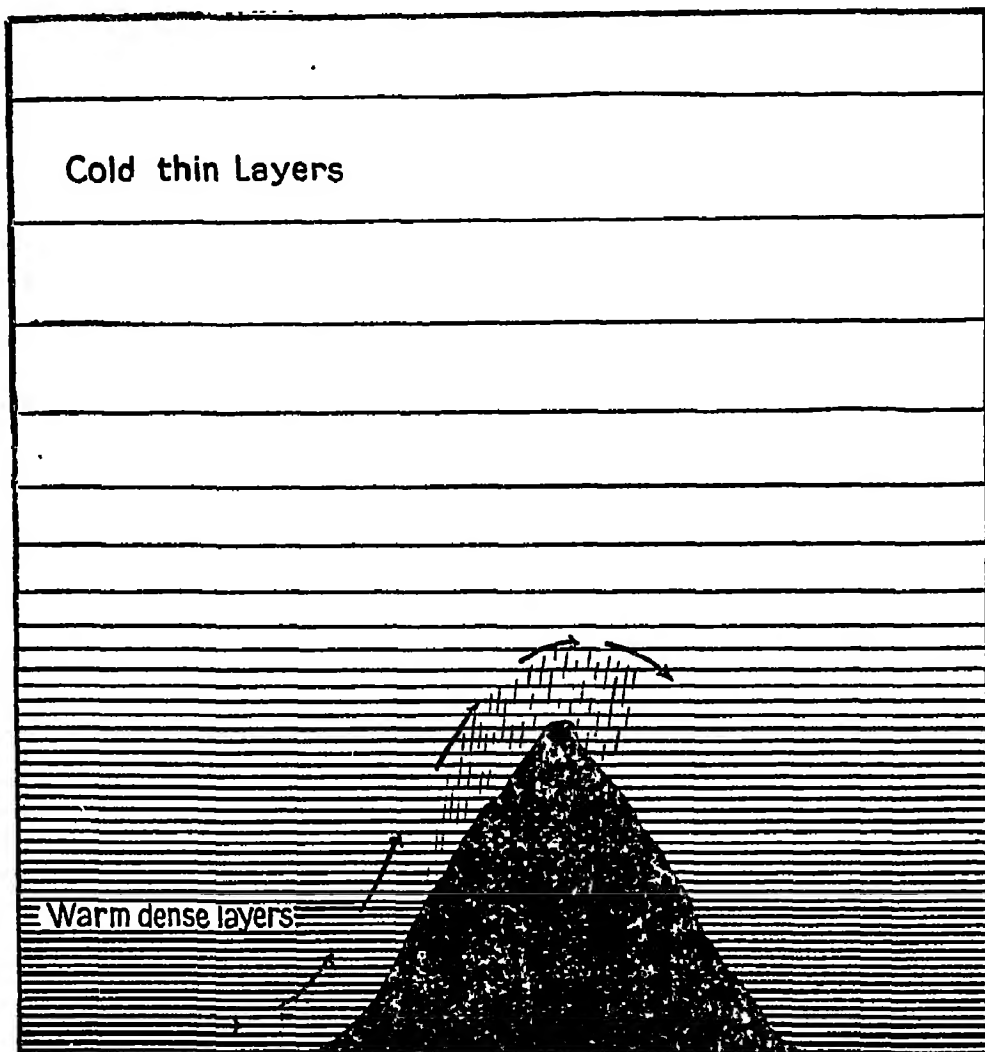


FIG. 34.—Showing air rising from a region of warm dense layers to a region of cold thin layers, when crossing a range of hills.

the wind meets a range of mountains it is forced to rise and becomes cooled and very heavy rainfall results. Rains caused in this way by the relief of physical features of the land are called 'relief rains'. Fig. 34 illustrates this kind of rainfall.

(c) We have said that warm air is light and rises. It must, of course, rise into the higher layers of the

atmosphere where it is colder. The warm air is cooled and rain falls. Notice that in this case no wind is necessary, the rain falls in the same place from which evaporation took place. Such rains are called 'convection rains'.

5. **Measuring Rainfall.**—Just as careful records of temperature are kept all over India, so the rainfall is measured day by day. Rainfall is very, very important for our crops, and so the rainfall is recorded in a much larger number of places than the temperature. The instrument for measuring the amount of rain which falls is called a rain gauge. Fig. 35 is a picture of one. The raindrops fall into the mouth of the funnel and run down into the bottle inside. As the bottle is inside the jar, the water cannot evaporate or 'dry up'. Every day the jar is opened and the bottle taken out. Then the rain water in the bottle is poured

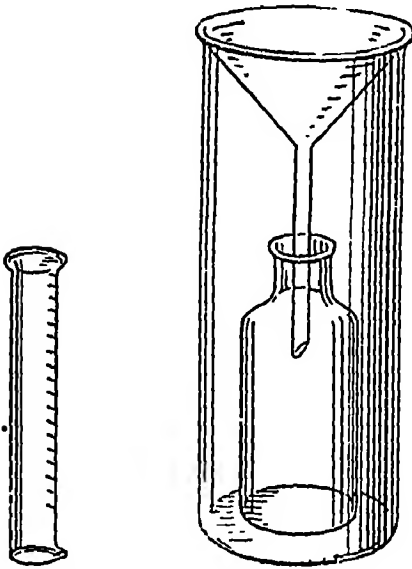


FIG. 35.—A rain gauge.

into a glass which has divisions marked on it. Suppose that on a certain day the rain water from the bottle fills the glass up to the 1.5 mark. This will mean that 1.5 inches of rain has fallen during the day. That is, if all the rain which fell on the ground in that place had stayed still on the top of the ground and had not run into streams, or soaked into the ground or dried up, it would have formed a layer 1.5 inches deep.

6. **Recording Rainfall.**—Every day the observer in charge of the rain gauge writes down the rainfall for the day. At the end of the month these amounts are added up and we get the rainfall for the month. Now notice carefully that this is different from the recording of temperature. There we had to find the *average* temperature. With rainfall it is the total for the month which we require. On page 34 in Chapter IV you have the records of a place for the month of October, 1925.

At the end of the year we add up the totals of each

of the twelve months and that gives us the total rainfall for the year.

But some years are wetter than others and so we have to find the average over a number of years thus :—

Place	Year	Rainfall for the year
A town in the middle of Bengal		inches
	1912	79·8
	1913	89·0
	1914	69·4
	1915	80·1
	1916	88·3
	1917	80·4
	1918	82·1
	1919	74·3
	1920	76·4
	1921	76·3

10) 796·1

Average annual rainfall

... 79·6 inches.

7. **Seasonal Rainfall.**—In the last chapter we learnt that there are two principal winds in India. The North-East Monsoon blows from October or November onwards, whilst the South-West Monsoon commences about June and blows on till September. The North-East Monsoon blows from a land mass and is therefore a dry wind; it is blowing towards a place which is warmer than itself and so becomes thirstier as it goes. It is therefore a dry wind over nearly the whole of India. But the South-West Monsoon is blowing from the sea and from a warm region (the equator). It is therefore a wet wind. In India it meets numerous ranges of hills and mountains and so heavy relief rains are caused. This rain will fall while the South-West Monsoon is blowing, that is from about June to September.

In order to indicate this more clearly we can show the monthly rainfall in each of a number of towns by means of lines. Study Figs. 36 to 38 carefully.

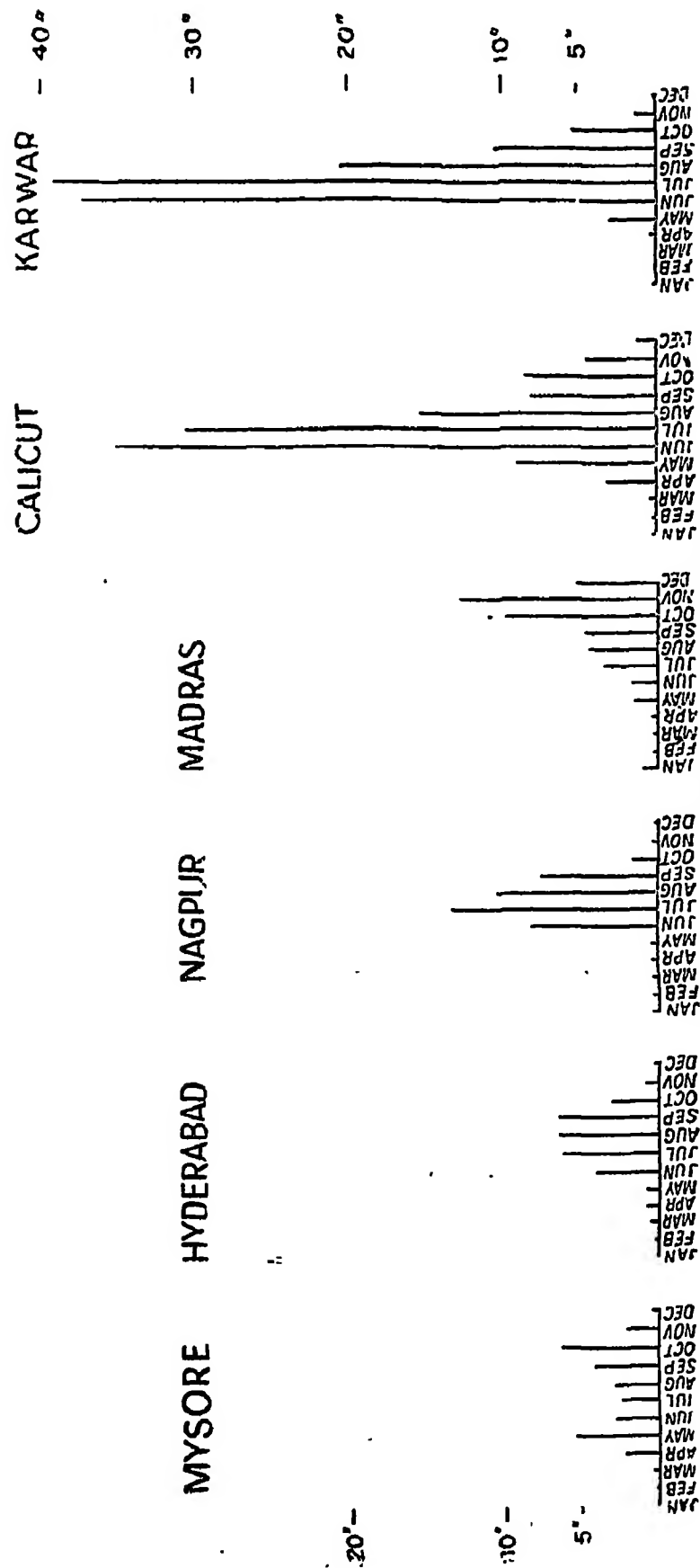


FIG. 36.—Rainfall Graphs of towns.

8. **Rainfall Maps.**—Rainfall is so important in the life of a country that it is very useful to have a map on which we can see at once which parts of the country have heavy rain, which parts moderate rain and so on. We can draw such a map showing the rainfall for one month only, or for a number of months, or for a year. The most useful one is the rainfall map showing the average rainfall for a whole year. In India it is only necessary to remember that most of the rain falls from June to October.

To construct a rainfall map we take a map of the country, mark against each place the annual rainfall and then draw lines joining places with equal rainfall. Such lines are called 'isohyets' or 'rainfall lines'.

Fig. 39 is a very simple Rainfall Map of India for the year. Notice that it has marked on it only four rainfall lines. These lines divide India into four parts :—

(a) Good Rainfall Division with more than 80 inches in the year. In the plains rice is everywhere the most important crop and the hills are covered with thick evergreen forest or jungle.

(b) Moderate Rainfall Division with between 40 and 80 inches of rain in the year. In the hills fine forests of

KARACHI	7.7"	KARACHI
LAHORE	17.9"	LAHORE
RAWALPINDI	32.4"	RAWALPINDI
MURREE	59.9"	MURREE
QUETTA	9.7	QUETTA
SKARDU	8.6	SKARDU

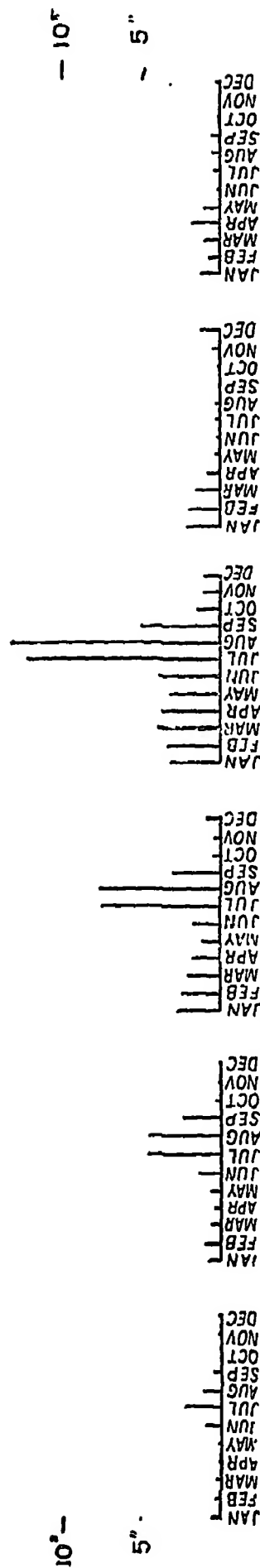


FIG. 37.—Rainfall Graphs of Indian towns.

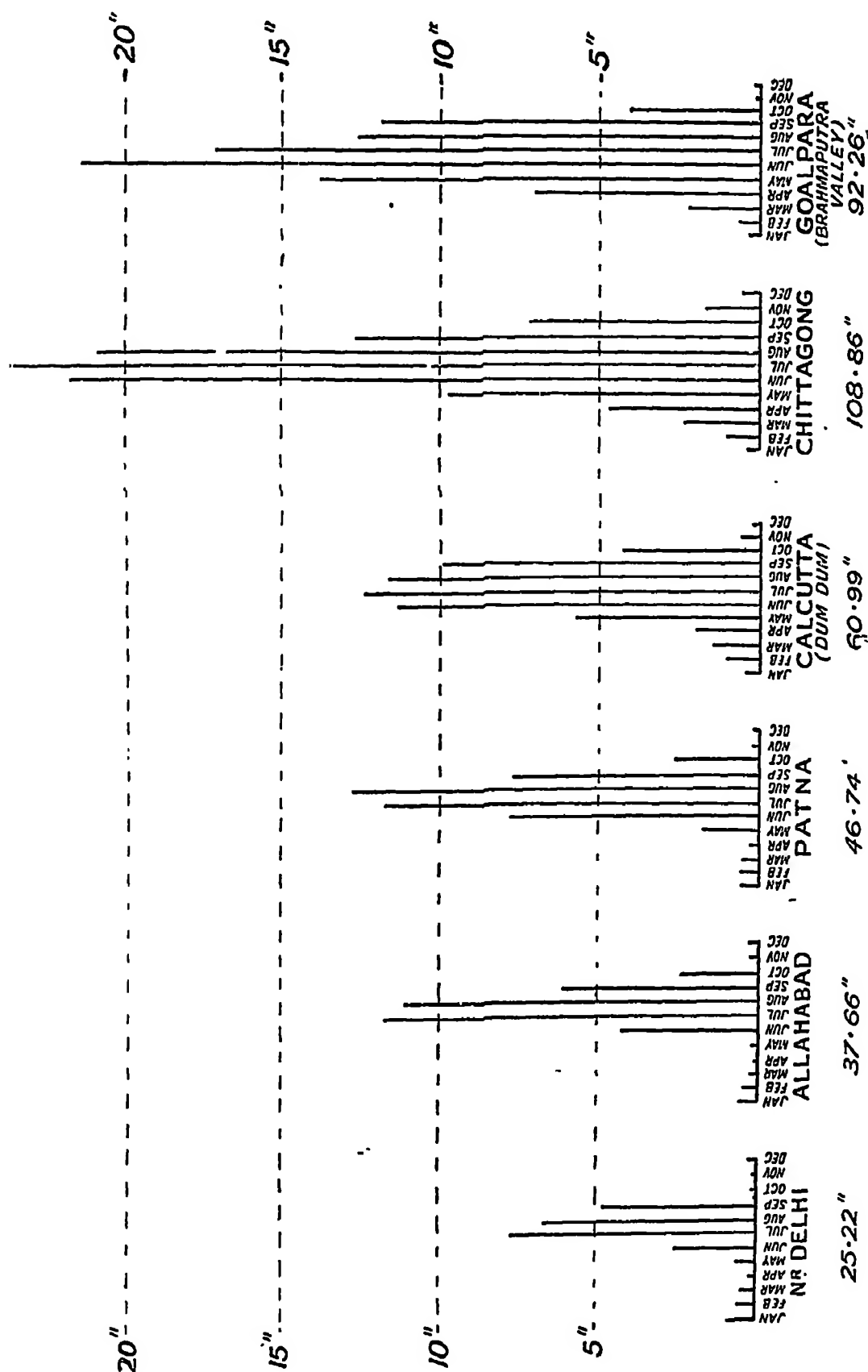


FIG. 38.--Rainfall Graphs of Indian towns,

valuable teak and sal trees flourish with this rainfall. In the plains many crops can be grown without irrigation and there is a mixture of dry zone and wet zone crops.

(c) Poor Rainfall Division with between 20 and 40 inches of rain. Here the dry zone crops such as millet grow; wet zone crops such as rice can only be grown with the help of irrigation. The hills are largely covered with scrub because it is not wet enough for forests to grow properly.

(d) Desert and Semi-Desert with less than 20 inches of rain. It is almost impossible to grow any crops at all without irrigation.

These rainfall divisions of India are so important that you should try to carry a picture of Fig. 39 in your mind.

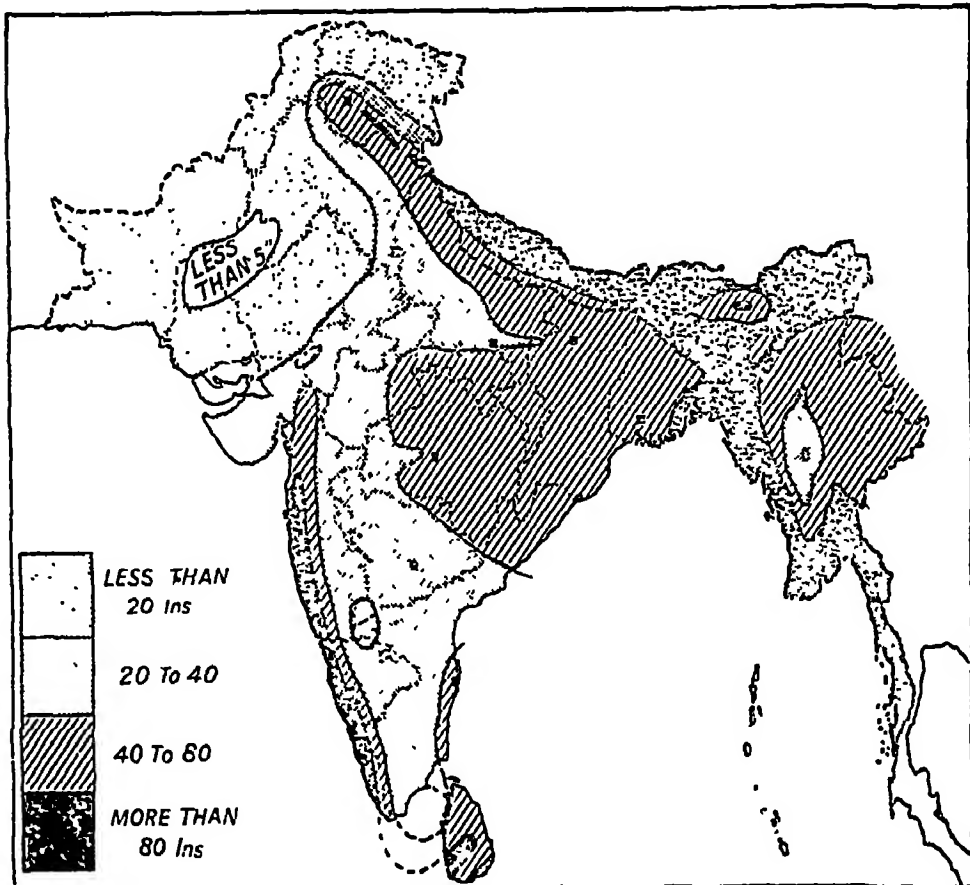


FIG. 39.—Rainfall map of India. In the centre of Peninsular India a small patch has been left blank. How should it be shaded and why?

9. Rainfall in Southern India and Ceylon.—In most parts of India the rains cease in September or October, but the Madras Coast in Southern India and Ceylon (especially the north-eastern half) get a considerable amount of rain in

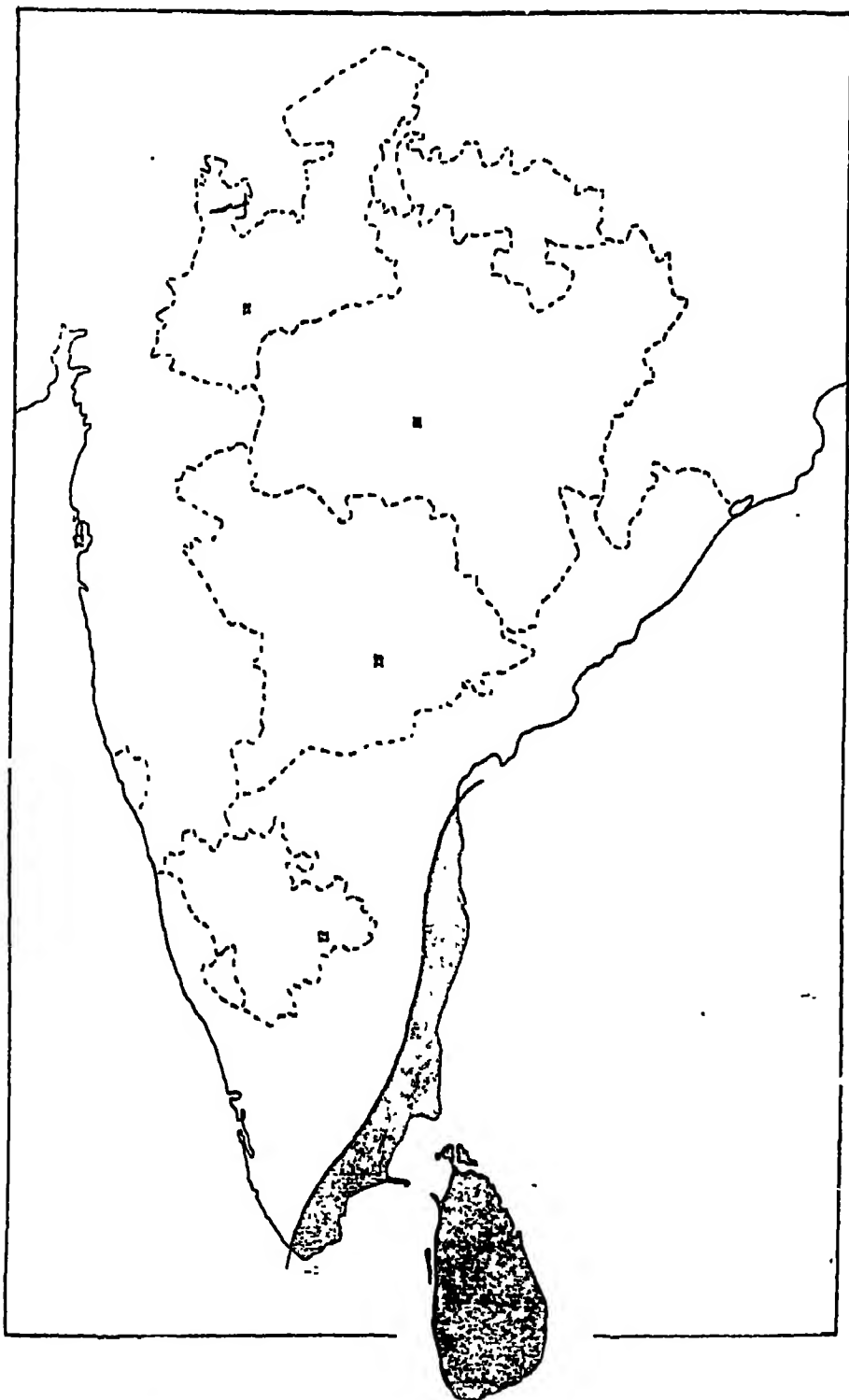


FIG. 40.—Map showing the part of Peninsular India which has more than 10 inches of rain in November and December.

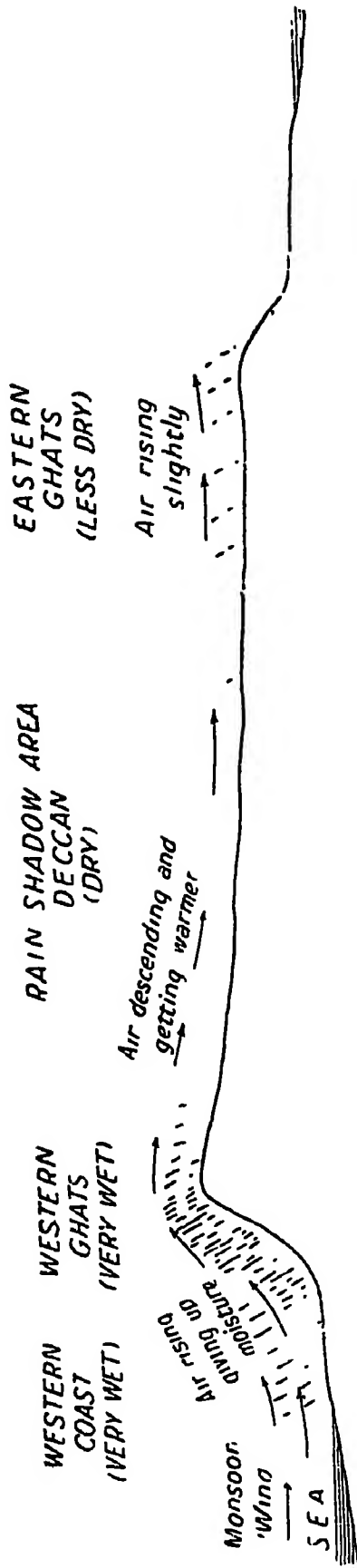


FIG. 41.—Section across the Western Ghats showing Rain shadow.

October, November and December. This is shown clearly in Fig. 40. If you study the map you will notice that the North-East Monsoon has to cross the sea before reaching these parts of India. Consequently it collects some moisture and deposits it on the coast, especially soon after the South-West Monsoon has changed round into the North-East.

There is another region in the Indian Empire which receives rain in the later months of the year. That is the extreme south of Burma. Lands on the equator receive convectional rains through the whole year, and as Southern Burma is near that region it receives some rain during the months which are dry in other parts of India.

Baluchistan and Northern Kashmir are both outside the Monsoon region. They are both very dry, but receive their rain or snow mainly in the colder months.

10. **Rain-Shadows.**—Look back at Fig. 39 and notice the very heavy rainfall on the West Coast and the very small rainfall in the interior of Peninsular India. This is because the moisture laden winds, blowing from the south-west, strike the Western Ghats. The wind has to rise, is cooled; and deposits a very heavy rainfall. When the wind has crossed the Ghats it descends slightly to the level of the

Plateau. That is, as you see from Fig. 34, it goes down into the warmer layers of the atmosphere again and so gives up very little of the moisture it carries. When light falls on an object a shadow is formed on the opposite side of the object. In the same way, when rain falls on one side of a hill, there is a 'shadow' of dryness on the other side. The dry area is called the 'Rain-Shadow'. The centre of Peninsular India is in the 'Rain-Shadow' of the Western Ghats. Fig. 41 shows this clearly.

Look again at the Rainfall Map of India and notice the Dry Belt in the centre of Burma. This area is in the rain shadow of the Arakan Yoma as shown in Fig. 42. Notice the heavy relief rains on the western side of the Arakan Yoma.

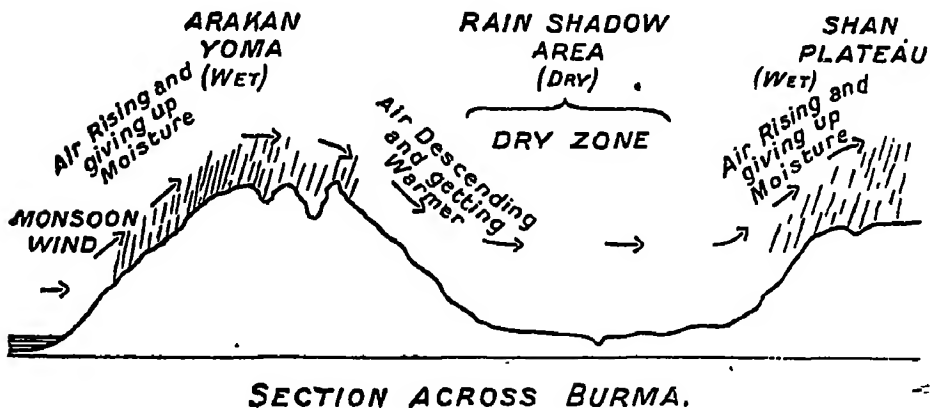


FIG. 42.—Showing Rain-Shadow.

Again, the centre of the Brahmaputra Valley in Assam is in the rain-shadow of the Khasi Hills. Cherrapunji, on the Khasi Hills catches the full force of the monsoon and has one of the heaviest rainfalls in the world.

11. **Storms.**—Thunderstorms usually occur in India just about the beginning and end of the 'Rains'. When the North-East Monsoon has died away and the South-West Monsoon is just about to commence, the atmosphere is very disturbed, and thunderstorms occur. The same thing

happens when the South-West Monsoon changes to the North-East, in October.

Violent storms often occur in the drier parts of India. There the sun shines very brilliantly and the land becomes very hot by day, but at night gets very cold. The great difference in temperature often causes severe storms, which may sweep across India and do much damage. Dust storms in the deserts are much to be feared, as are the cyclones at sea.

12. *Climate and Weather.*—The temperature, pressure, movement and dampness of the atmosphere constitute the weather. In other words all these things working together give us the 'weather'. We may pick out the most noticeable feature, such as the heat, and say we have had very hot weather to-day, or we may say 'the weather has been very stormy this week'. The word weather applies to short periods such as a day, week or month. In the last three chapters, however, we have dealt very largely with the *averages* of temperature, rainfall, etc., of a large number of years. When we study averages we get an idea of the average, or normal state of the year. This constitutes the 'Climate' of the country. In other words climate is the normal or average state of the weather. We say India has a monsoon climate because normally the South-West Monsoon blows from June and September and brings rain to the country.

13. *The Seasons.*—Summarizing what we have learnt of the climate of India we may divide the year into three parts :—

(a) the Cool Season, from about the middle of October to the end of February, when the temperature is comparatively low, and there is little or no rain.

(b) the Hot Season from March to June, when the sun is shining vertically over India and the land gets very hot.

(c) the Rainy Season, from about the middle of June to the middle of October. The South-West Monsoon is blowing and bringing the rain. It is cooler, because the clouds protect the land from the sun and the rain cools the air.

The Rainy Season commences, or as we say the Rains break, at slightly different times in different parts of India but June 15 is a normal time in many places.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Explain why the rain falls on the windward side of hills.
2. Explain the reasons for the rainfall of Akyab (196 in.) Mandalay (33 in.), Nagpur (47 in.), Bombay (80 in.), Mysore (29 in.) and Multan (5 in.)?
3. Look at fig. 39. About how much rain falls during the year at Trivandrum, Hyderabad, Waltair, Allahabad, Dacca, Simla and Karachi? If you do not know where all these places are, find them in your atlas.
4. Look at the Rainfall Graphs of Towns (Figs. 36-38). Make a list of the towns and mark against each the months in which most rain falls and in which least falls.
5. Draw a section across the Brahmaputra Valley showing the Rain-Shadow.
6. Draw diagrams illustrating 'convection rains'.

CHAPTER VII

NATURAL VEGETATION

1. **Natural Vegetation.**—Natural Vegetation is the name which we give to the jungle and the forest or grass which grow by themselves untouched by man. If there were no people at all living in India the whole of the country would be covered with its natural vegetation. Actually, however, there are enormous numbers of people living in India and they have cleared away the jungle and made fields in which to grow their rice or millet or other crops. Some parts of India, such as the Ganges Valley, are so fertile that practically no natural vegetation is left. It has all been cut down. But in other parts of India where there are fewer people a great deal of the country is covered with the vegetation which grows naturally without the help of men. It has only been cleared away near towns and villages. In this chapter we are going to study the different kinds of natural vegetation which occur in India.

2. **Vegetation and Rainfall.**—Why should not the jungle be exactly the same all over India? That is certainly not so, for in some places we find evergreen forests of huge trees, whilst in other places there is nothing but a few scrubby bushes. There are two main factors as we call them which make the differences in vegetation. These are *rainfall* and *elevation* (or height above sea-level). Generally the heavier the rainfall, the thicker is the vegetation. In the wettest places of all we may find high evergreen forest, whilst in the driest places it may be difficult for any plants to grow at all and we find only desert. Then as we ascend the mountains it becomes much cooler through the whole year and so the trees change. The change occurs at a height of between 3,000 and 5,000 feet above the level of the sea.

The following are the principal kinds of natural vegetation in India :—

3. **Evergreen Forest.**—When the rainfall is more than 80 inches in a year (see Fig. 39) we find forest in which the

trees are green all the year round. There are many different kinds of trees in these forests, often they are of very large size. But the wood of the trees is very hard and up to the present has not been much used commercially. In these areas of very heavy rainfall nearly all the lowland has been cleared to make room for paddy fields, but we find the forest, the natural vegetation, on the hills. It is

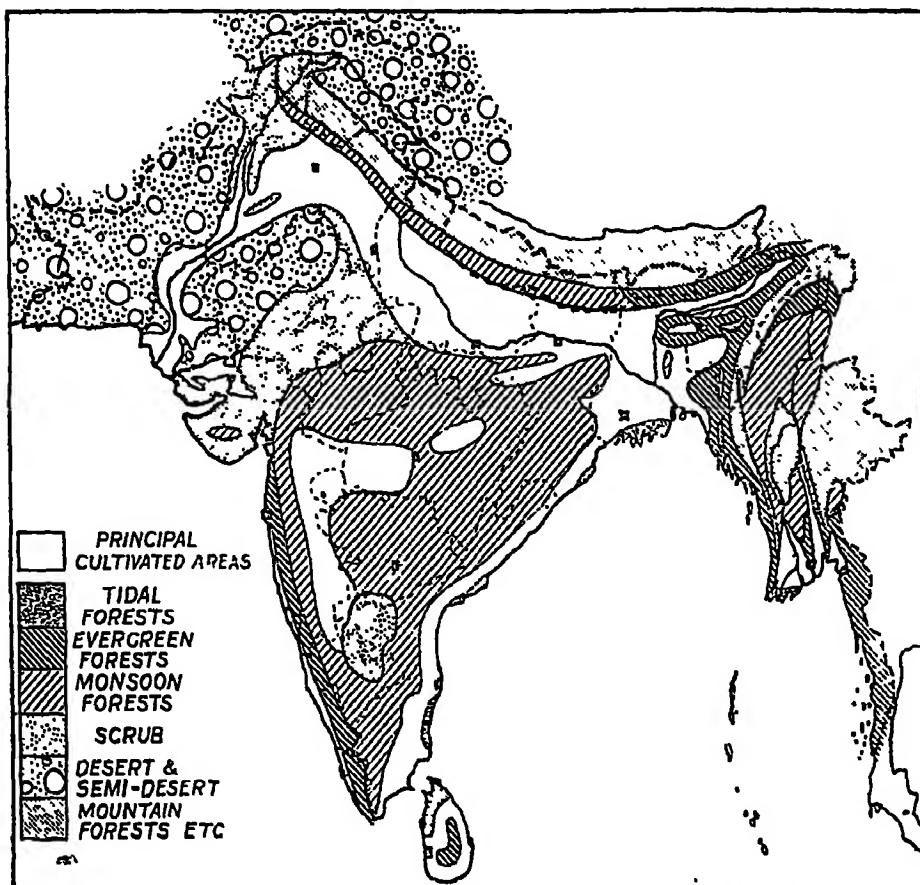


FIG. 43.—Map of the natural vegetation of India.

found on the slopes of the Western Ghats, in the wetter eastern parts of the Himalayas up to 5,000 feet above sea-level, Assam, the Arakan Coast of Burma and Lower Burma. Study Fig. 43 and note where it occurs.

4. **Monsoon Forest.**—Where the rainfall is more than 40 inches but less than 80 inches the forest gets very dry in the Hot Season. The trees lose their leaves to protect themselves against the heat of the sun, and so the forest is leafless for part of the year. Such forests of good large trees but which are not evergreen we call 'Monsoon Forests'. They are very valuable for in them grow the

most important trees of India. The two most important trees are the Teak, which comes from Burma and the western part of the Indian Plateau, and the Sal which grows along the lower slopes of the Himalayas and in the north-east of the Plateau. The monsoon forests are so valuable that they are largely 'reserved' by Government to prevent them being destroyed by careless and wasteful use.

5. **Scrub Forest and Scrubland.**—Where the rainfall is less than 40 inches in a year, we find it is usually too dry for forests to grow properly. A few trees grow but most of them are armed with spines or thorns to prevent them being eaten by animals. Forests of small thorny trees are called Thorn Forest. Sometimes the trees are so small that they are really only bushes and are often far apart. We call such land 'Scrubland'. Scrubland covers large areas in the drier parts of India and Burma. In Peninsular India where there happens to be good soil on hill slopes better forests may be found although the rainfall is only just over 30 inches. One of the most useful trees in these dry parts is the cutch from which a yellow dye is made.

6. **Desert and Semi Desert.**—As the climate gets drier and drier, so the thorny trees and bushes become rarer. Instead we find plants with thick, fleshy stems and very long roots, which store up water in their fleshy stems and leaves.

7. **Grassland.**—There is not much grassland in India. Patches occur on hilly regions, interrupting the Monsoon Forests.

8. **Mountain Forests.**—On the hills and mountains of Southern India above 5,000 feet, and in Burma and on the Himalayas above 3,000 feet we find a great change. The forests are more like those found in Temperate Lands. The forests are evergreen: some of them are of broad leaved trees like the oak; others have tall unbranched trees with needle shaped leaves (Coniferous or Pine Forests). You will learn more about these when we come to study the Himalayas.

9. **Alpine Vegetation and Alpine Forests.**—On the highest parts of the mountains it is too cold for trees to grow. We find only small bushes and short grass, or where it is very dry, practically nothing at all. The very highest parts of the mountains of Northern India (above 18,000 feet) are always covered with snow.

10. **Mangrove Forests.**—There are certain trees which must have their roots covered by salt water at every high tide. The mangroves are the most important. We find them growing along the sea coast where it is flat and muddy and in the great river deltas. The mangrove forests of the Ganges Delta are called the 'Sundarbans', from *sundri*, the Bengali name for mangrove.

11. **Useful Forest Products.**—The most valuable timber is teak, mainly from Burma. The pyinkado or Burma ironwood is another important tree, largely used for railway sleepers. The Sal gives a good timber also. The pine trees of the mountains yield fine soft wood, as well as timber and resin, but the forests are difficult to reach. Many of the poorer kinds of wood in all parts of India are used for firewood. The mangrove forests are found in deltas where no other wood is available and are therefore valuable for the fuel they yield. Bamboo is really a very large grass and grows in many parts of India but especially in the Monsoon Forests. It is used for very many purposes. Another forest product is lac, a sticky substance produced by insects living on the forest trees.

The method of working the timber of the forests is interesting. It is cut in the dry season and dragged to the small streams by elephants or buffaloes. When the rains come the streams rise and the logs are floated down to the bigger rivers. These logs are joined together to form 'rafts' and floated down the rivers to saw mills where the wood is cut up into planks.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Think of some object in your home made of wood and try to describe all the events that took place since the tree of which it was made was growing in the forests.
2. What is the natural vegetation of the Ganges Valley? Why?
3. Draw a sketch-map of India, shading the parts where useful timber is produced.
4. Why is the teak tree never found high up in the Himalaya Mountains or in Baluchistan?

CHAPTER VIII

AGRICULTURE (ARTIFICIAL VEGETATION)

1. **Agriculture in India.**—We said in the last chapter that the natural vegetation or jungle has been cleared away over large areas in India in order to make room for man to grow his crops. Over very large areas such as the Ganges Plain, there is no natural vegetation left at all. India has a very large number of people and they all require food to live. There are 320,000,000 people and 350,000,000 acres of the country are cultivated. After all the people have been fed, there are still some food grains as well as other crops left over. These are sent to other countries in exchange for other goods.

You will notice that there is roughly an acre of cultivated land for every person in India. An acre is about the size of two football fields. Nine out of every ten people in India get their living from agriculture—as the growing of crops is called—so you see why India is called an ‘agricultural country’.

We said that the natural vegetation of a country depends mainly upon rainfall. Rainfall, too, is one of the most important things to consider with regard to crops but there is one very great difference. Man is able to bring water artificially to his crops so that even in a dry country with very little rainfall he can still grow crops which require a lot of moisture. The artificial watering of the land is called irrigation. We will now consider some of the most important crops in India.

2. **Rice.**—Rice requires considerable heat from the sun, and a great deal of water. The young rice plants need to be completely covered with water. Therefore rice is grown where there are heavy rains to flood the land or where man has built canals which can bring plenty of water to his fields. The fields must be flat, so that the water does not run off the fields. The most important rice districts are therefore flat lands where the rainfall is very heavy.

Fig. 44 shows this very clearly if you compare it with Fig. 13 and 39. In these parts of India rice is the principal food of the people or, as we say, their staple food. In drier regions rice becomes less important.

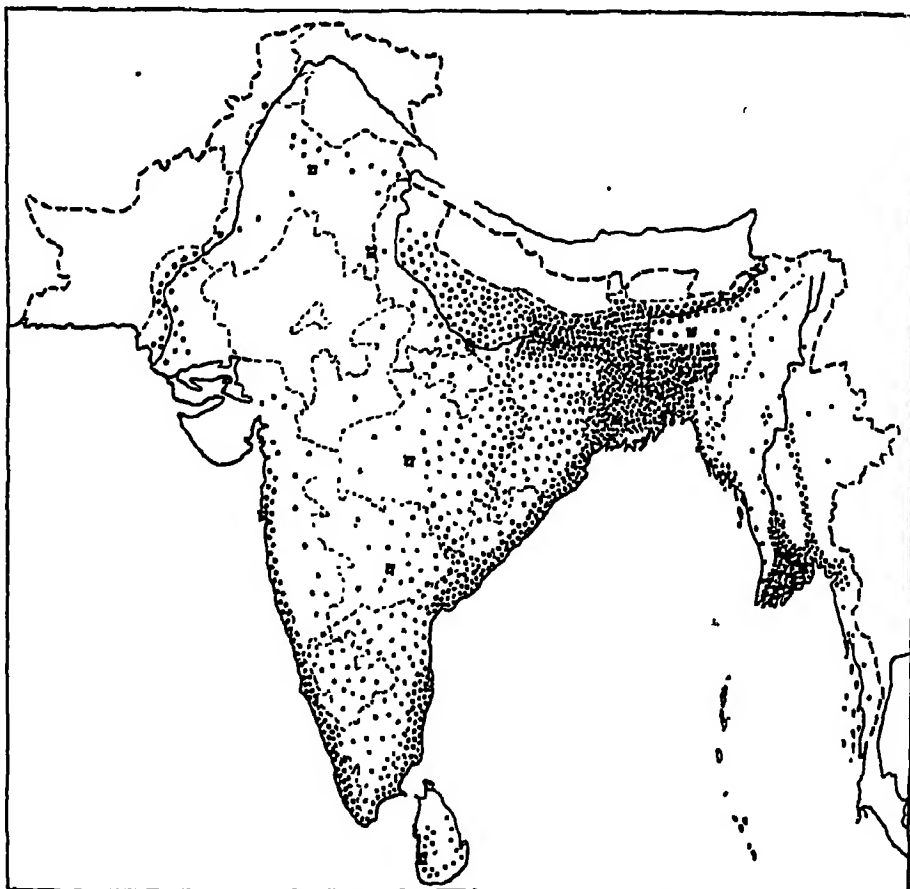


FIG. 44.—The Distribution of rice. Each dot represents 50,000 acres.

3. **Wheat.**—Wheat is a grain which is very much valued by white races and forms their principal food. Wheat is also a favourite food grain in the drier parts of Northern India. It is there a winter crop so that the land can often be used for other purposes during the rest of the year. It is sown at the end of the rains and ripens at the end of the year before the great heat commences. So much is grown that there is plenty left over to be sent to Europe to feed the people who are busily engaged in industry there. Unlike rice, wheat requires only a moderate amount of water and would be killed if the young plants were covered by water as rice is. Wheat is a very important crop in the Punjab

and many of the northern parts of India where the rainfall is less than 40 inches. As we travel down the Ganges Valley into wetter regions it gradually disappears. This can be seen from Fig. 45.

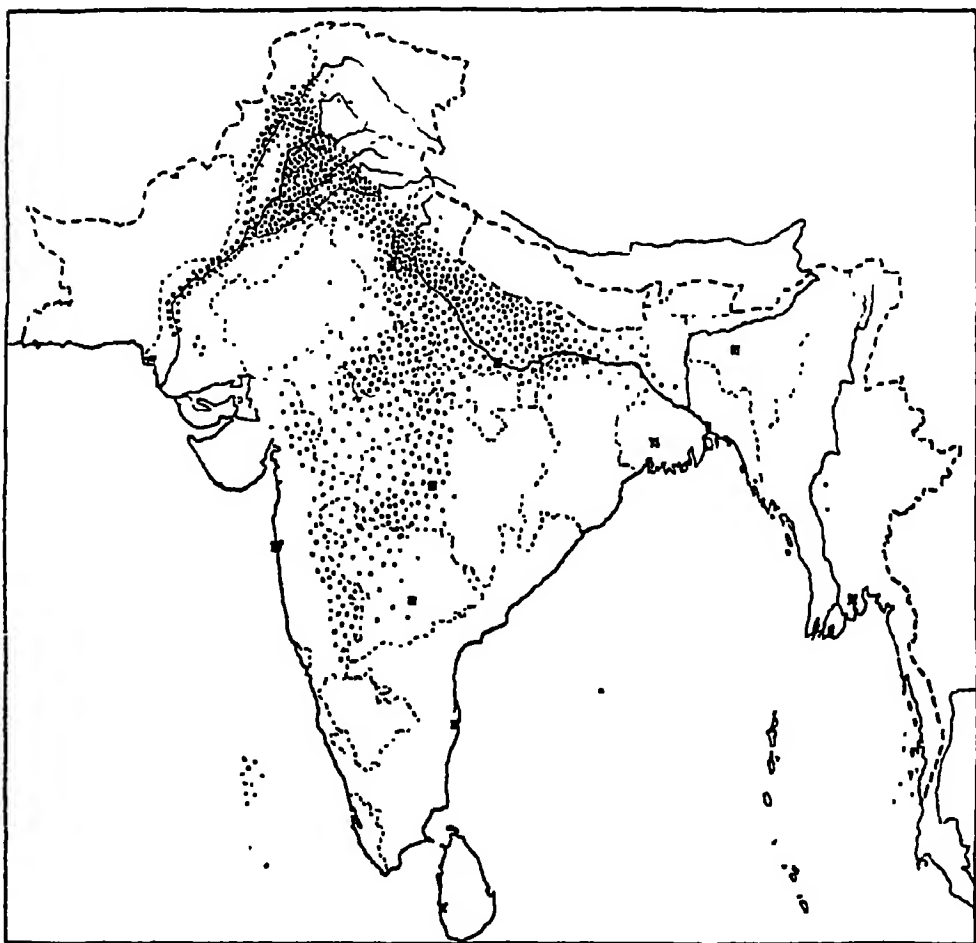


FIG. 45.—The distribution of wheat. Each dot represents 20,000 acres.

4. **Barley.**—Barley is another important crop which grows largely in the same districts as wheat.

5. **Millet.**—Millet is a small grain which forms the 'staple' food of the people in most of the drier parts of India. There are several different kinds, the three principal being *cholum* or *jowar*, *cumbu* or *bajra* and *ragi* or *marua*. Where the rainfall is less than 40 inches millet is everywhere important and it can be grown without irrigation even when the rainfall is as low as 20 inches. When the

rainfall exceeds 40 inches it quickly disappears. Fig. 46 shows the distribution of millet.

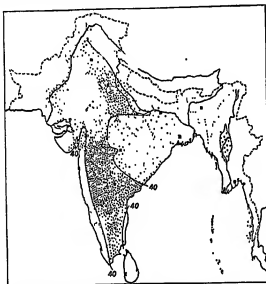


FIG. 46.—The distribution of millet. Each dot represents 50,000 acres. The lines marked 40 are the 40-inch rainfall lines. Notice that nearly all the millet is grown where the rainfall is less than 40 inches.

6. *Maize*.—Maize is grown both for its grain (Indian corn) and as fodder for cattle. In India it flourishes both on the plains and in the hills where the rainfall is moderate. We find it with millet in dry regions, but also in damper regions, too. But in the lower Ganges Valley with a rainfall of 50 inches it disappears.

7. *Pulses*.—Pulses of many different kinds are cultivated throughout the country. The most important is gram, which affords a good food as well as fodder for cattle and horses.

8. *Sugar-cane*.—Sugar-cane is grown in nearly all the provinces of India, but most comes from the irrigated lands of the Upper Ganges Valley and the Punjab. From it

jaggery is made. But not nearly enough sugar is produced in India and enormous quantities are purchased from Java every year.

9. **Cotton.**—We now come to crops which are not grown for food. One of the most important is cotton. The cotton itself is obtained from hairs on the seeds. When the seed-pods open the seeds inside are seen to be wrapped in a mass of cotton fibres. The value of the cotton depends largely

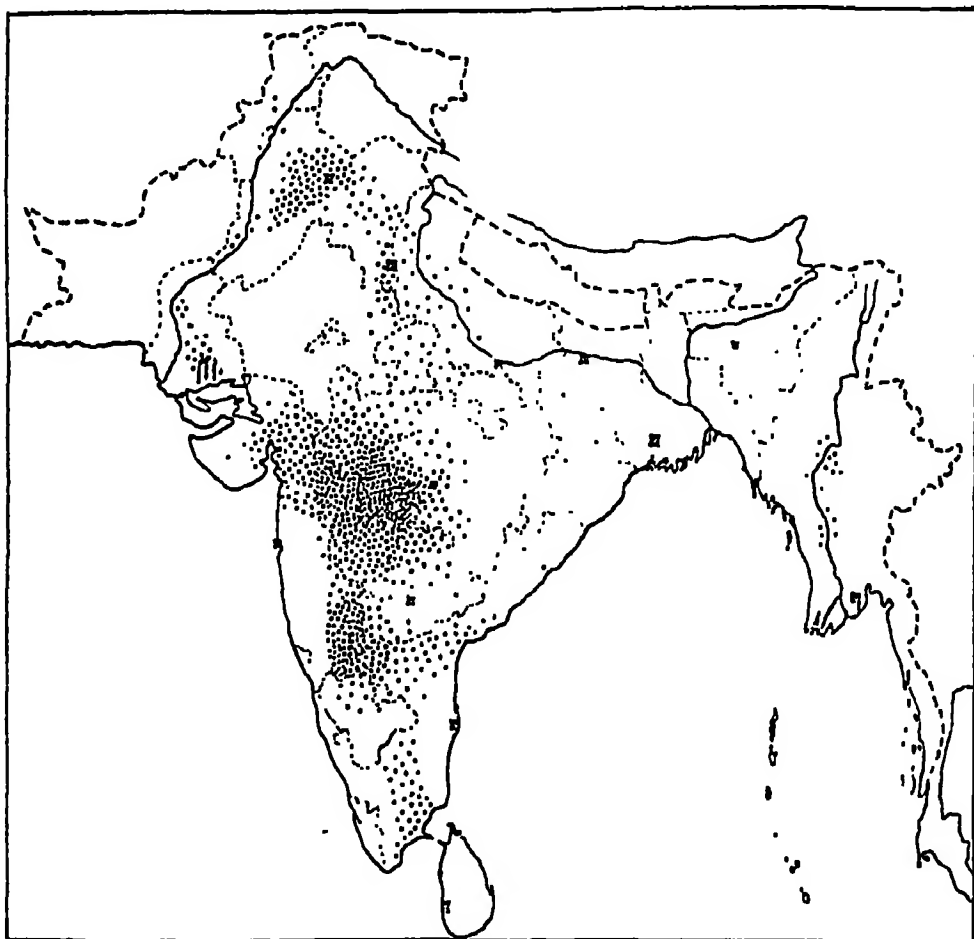


FIG. 47.—The distribution of cotton Each dot represents 20,000 acres.

on the length of the hairs and there are many different varieties. In India there are two principal kinds.

(a) Native Indian cottons with short hairs or as we say 'a short-stapled' cotton.

(b) American cotton, of which the plants were originally brought from America, which has much longer hairs and is much more valuable.

Cotton is a dry region crop and flourishes where the rainfall is less than 40 inches. The soil is important, one

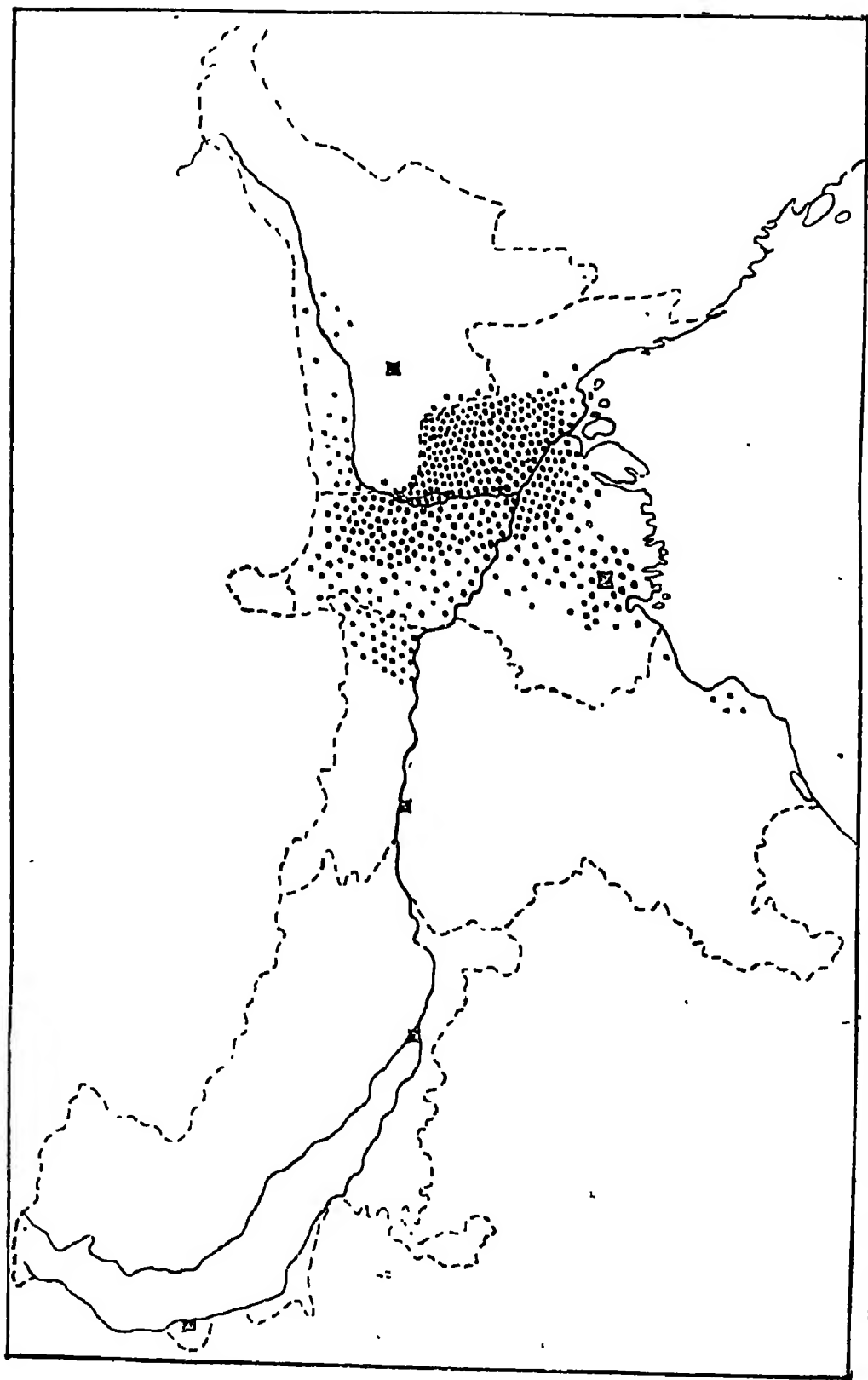


FIG. 48.—Sketch-map showing the distribution of jute. Each dot means 5,000 acres of jute.

of the best is the sticky black cotton soil produced by the weathering of the Deccan Lavas. The American cottons require more moisture and have to be grown on irrigated and carefully prepared soil, as in the Punjab. Fig. 47 shows the distribution of cotton.

10. **Jute.**—Jute is a crop which is different from almost all others, in that it is grown in enormous quantities in one part of the world only, and that is in the very wet lands of the Ganges Delta. The stems yield a very strong fibre from which most of the sacks in the world are made. Like rice it is a plant of the low, wet lands. Its distribution is shown in Fig. 48.

11. **Oilseeds.**—Plants grown for the sake of the oil obtained from their seeds include linseed, rape, mustard, sesamum and ground-nuts. They grow best with a medium rainfall, and often prefer slightly hilly country. A good proportion of the crop is grown for export.

12. **Coconuts.**—Coconuts are also grown largely for the sake of the oil obtained from their nuts. The dried kernel of the nut, known as copra, is a valuable product and is sent abroad to be manufactured into soap, etc. A useful fibre, called coir, much used for making matting, is obtained from the outer shell of the nuts. Coconuts grow best in wet regions along the coast and are grown down the West Coast, in the island of Ceylon, in the Nicobar and other islands of the Indian Ocean and on parts of the East Coast.

13. **Tea.**—The tea plant is a shrub which requires a heavy rainfall, but must be grown on hill slopes or where the water does not remain near the roots. Most of the tea is grown for export. The hill slopes bordering the Brahmaputra Valley in Assam, the Himalayan slopes near Darjeeling and Dehra Dun, the island of Ceylon and the slopes of the Nilgiri Hills are the chief centres (see Fig. 49). Tea is obtained from the dried leaves of the shrub.

14. **Coffee.**—Coffee is obtained from the beans of a shrub. It was once important in Mysore, but a bad disease killed many of the plants and other countries in the world, like Brazil, can grow coffee more cheaply than we can.

15. **Tobacco.**—Soil is often more important for tobacco than rainfall and a little is grown in most districts of India.

In some places, like the delta of the Irrawaddy enough is grown to be exported.

16. **Rubber.**—Rubber is made from the juice of a tree which can be grown in very wet regions. The tree is an evergreen and grows best in the evergreen forest regions. There are numerous rubber plantations in Ceylon and some in Lower Burma.

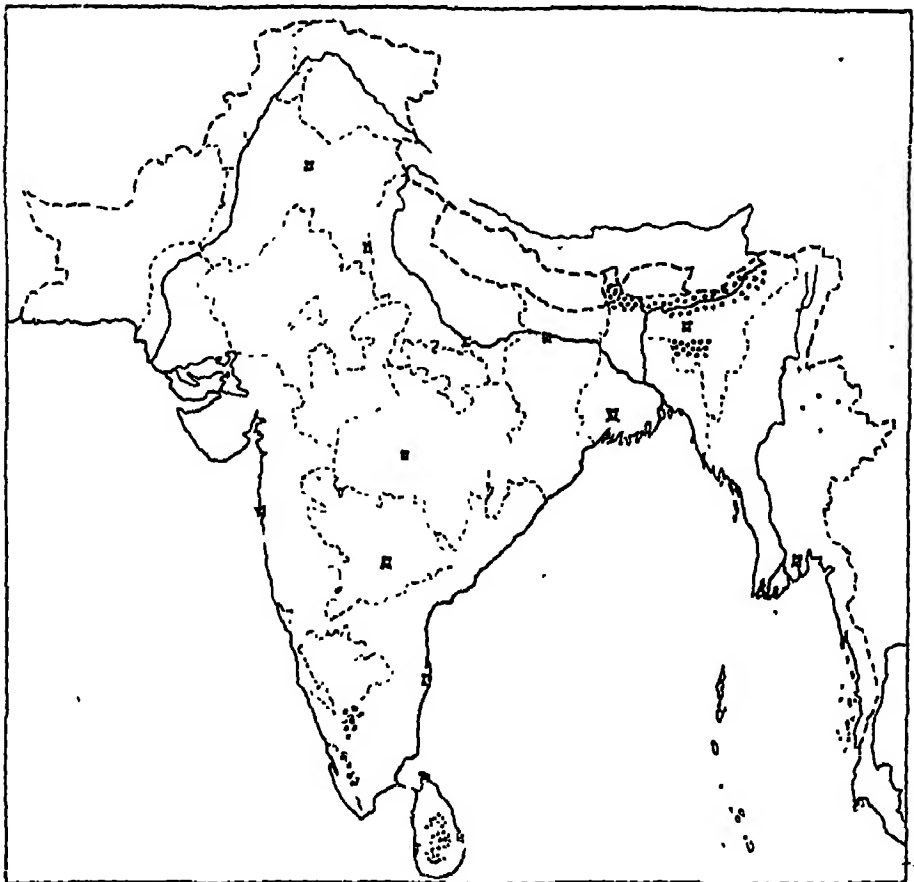


FIG. 49.—The distribution of tea. Each dot represents 10,000 acres of tea gardens.

17. **Indigo.**—Indigo is a small plant from which a purple dye is made. It used to be important in the Ganges Valley but it is now possible to make dyes more cheaply in factories and the growing of indigo is not nearly so important as it used to be.

18. **Opium.**—Opium is obtained from the seed capsules of the opium poppy. It is smoked by the Chinese in small pipes instead of tobacco and large quantities used to be

sold to China. But it is not good for the people and the Government has agreed not to sell any more and very little is now grown.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Using dots of different colours, show the distribution of rice, wheat, millet and cotton in your own province.
2. What parts of the following plants are useful to man :—
Cotton, jute, coffee, coconut, rice?
3. Make three lists, one of dry zone crops, one of wet zone crops, one of hill crops.

CHAPTER IX

THE ANIMALS OF INDIA

1. **Wild Animals.**—Just as the natural vegetation has disappeared over large areas in India, so the wild animals have disappeared also. We have to go to the mountains, or the thick forests or wild uninhabited lands to find the wild animals. Famous wild animals of India are the tiger, and the elephant. Large numbers of elephants live in the wilder parts of the monsoon forests, and every year many are caught and trained, as in Upper Burma. They are caught by being driven into a very strong and narrow enclosure called a Keddah. The elephant cannot turn round in the narrow keddah and he charges the end until he is tired out. Then he is tied up with chains and chained to a tame elephant.

There are wild buffaloes and many small animals in most parts of India. Every year many people die from snake bite. In some of the rivers crocodiles are dangerous.

2. **Domestic Animals.**—Man has trained or 'domesticated' a large number of animals to be useful to him. They are not all used for the same purpose. India is an agricultural country and large numbers of buffaloes and oxen are needed to drag the ploughs. Then we must have means of carrying the crops from the fields to the market. For this buffalo carts and bullock-carts are used. In hilly regions horses, ponies, mules and donkeys are more useful. In dry sandy regions camels and donkeys are much used.

Then the flesh of animals is eaten in many parts of India. Some eat beef from oxen; mutton from sheep and goats and pork from pigs. We get milk to drink from cows and goats and butter can be made from the milk of the cow. The animals also provide us with clothing—wool from sheep, goat's hair from goats and hair from camels whilst leather is made from the skins of buffaloes, oxen, sheep and goats.

3. **Elephants.**—The elephant is a very intelligent animal and at the same time is very strong. He is most useful in the forests where trees are being cut down for timber. He has been taught to drag great logs of wood, or pick them up in his trunk and carry them and arrange them in neat piles. He is also used as a beast of burden and can travel through thick jungle where there are no roads for bullock carts.

4. **Oxen.**—Oxen are probably the most useful animals in India. There are enormous numbers of them because they are used for ploughing and for drawing carts all over India. There is roughly one bull or bullock or cow for every two people. In many countries of the world, where horses or machines are used for ploughing the bullocks are killed and used for food whilst the cows are kept for the sake of their milk. The people in India do not use much milk and the bullocks are valued more than the cows. In some parts of India, especially in the United Provinces good rich fodder is grown and 'dairy farming'—that is the keeping of cows for the sake of their milk—is carried on. In many of the drier parts of India, there is not sufficient grass to feed the oxen so fodder has to be grown for them.

5. **Buffaloes.**—There are twenty-eight million buffaloes in India. The buffalo is heavier and stronger than the ox but slower. Although the buffalo is very fond of the water and is much used in the rice fields of Lower Burma for ploughing, we also find large numbers in the drier parts of India, as in the United Provinces.

6. **Sheep.**—There are twenty-two million sheep in British India. They live mainly on the dry hilly parts, where they can feed on grassland or waste land which is not good enough for cattle. They are most abundant in Madras. This you will see illustrated in Fig. 50. Compared with the sheep of other parts of the world those of India are very poor. They do not give very good wool or meat.

7. **Goats.**—Goats are to be found everywhere in India for they are very easy to keep. They can live on the poorest of grass or shrubs and find enough to eat even in the driest parts.

8. **Horses and Ponies.**—There are less than two million horses and ponies in India, which shows you that horses are not used for ploughing as they are in other countries of

the world. They are mainly used for drawing small carts.

9. *Mules and Donkeys.*—Mules are very valuable in hilly regions. They are very sure-footed and do not slip on the narrow mountain paths. So goods are strapped on to

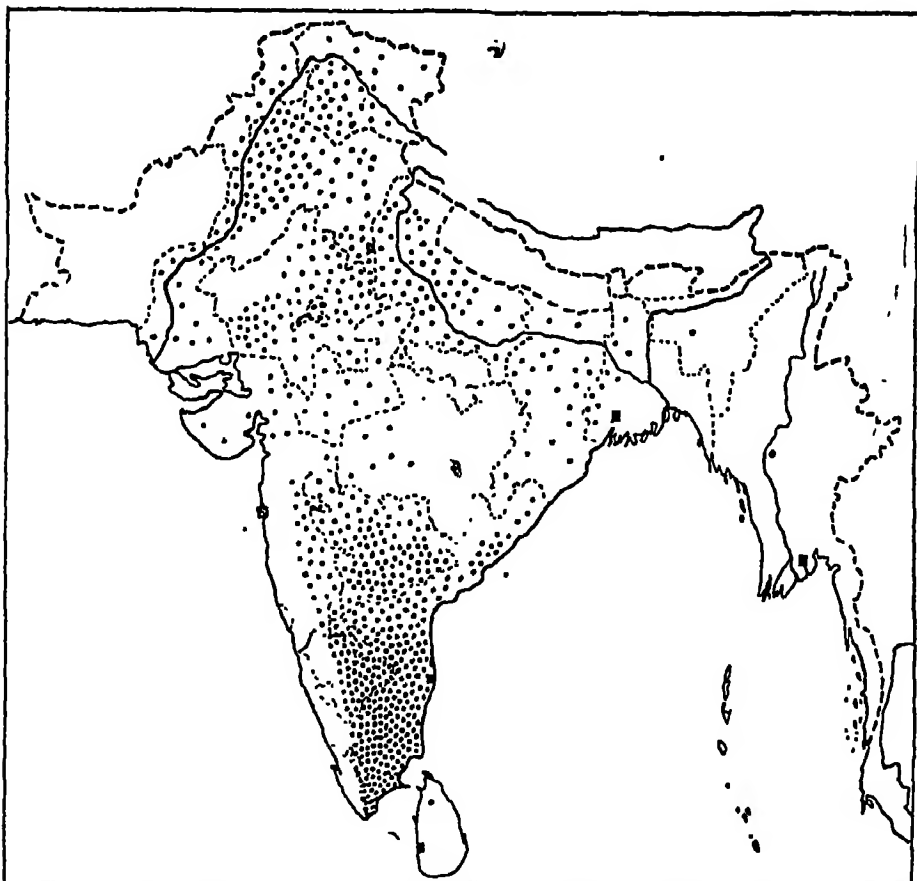


FIG. 50.—The distribution of sheep in India. Each dot represents 50,000 sheep.

their backs and carried across the mountains. Donkeys are used in the same way in the drier parts of India and can travel long distances across dry, sandy country.

10. *Camels.*—The camel is called the ship of the desert, because it can travel across deserts, going for long periods without water, and has broad feet which do not sink into the desert sand. So we find there are many camels in the dry parts but none at all in the wet regions. This is an

excellent example of 'Climatic Control' in relation to animals. You see this illustrated in Fig. 51.

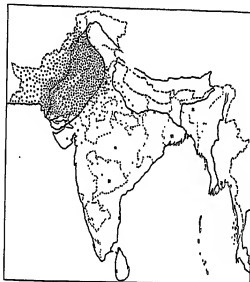


FIG. 51.—The distribution of camels in India. Each dot represents 1,000 camels. The thick line is the 20 inch rainfall line. Nearly all the camels live where the rainfall is less than 20 inches per year.

CHAPTER X

POPULATION

1. **Distribution of Population.**—In the whole of India, including Burma there are 320,000,000 (three hundred and twenty million) people. Now this is a very large number—so large that it is very difficult for us to realize what it means. Suppose you had to make one stroke like this | to represent each person in India and you started now making the strokes as quickly as you could and went on and on, day after day and week after week, only stopping for food and sleep, it would take you over five years to make 320,000,000 strokes.

These people are not scattered equally all over India. In some parts there are very few, in other parts there are very large numbers. In other words, some parts of the country are thinly populated, other parts are thickly populated.

We can use a map of India to show where the people live. It would take too long to make 320,000,000 dots and the map would then be too full of dots. So instead we can make one dot for each 100,000 people. On the same map we will mark by a square dot all towns where more than 100,000 people live. This has been done in Fig. 52. Before we try to find out the reasons why people live where they do, there is another word you must learn. When we talk about density of population we mean the number of people who live per square mile of a province or country. Thus if the area of a province is 1,000 square miles and the population is 500,000 there are 500 people to every square mile and the density is 500. Again a district of 350 square miles has 4,500 people and if you divide 4,500 by 350 that gives you the density. It is 13.

2. **Reasons for the Distribution of Population.**—In order to discover the reasons why people live where they do in India, let us compare Fig. 52 with other maps in this book. Firstly compare Fig. 52 with the physical map of India, Fig. 13. Notice that most people live on the lowlands and

that very few people live on the high mountains of the Mountain Wall. Now look at Fig. 14, the geological map of India. Nearly all the tracts of alluvium are thickly populated for the alluvium affords good rich soil and is easily cultivated. Then compare Fig. 52 with Fig. 39, the rainfall map of India. You will see that the people live both in the very wet regions and in the dry regions, so that man is not controlled by rainfall as much as the natural vegetation and the animals are. Lastly compare Fig. 52 with Fig. 43 and notice that the population is densest

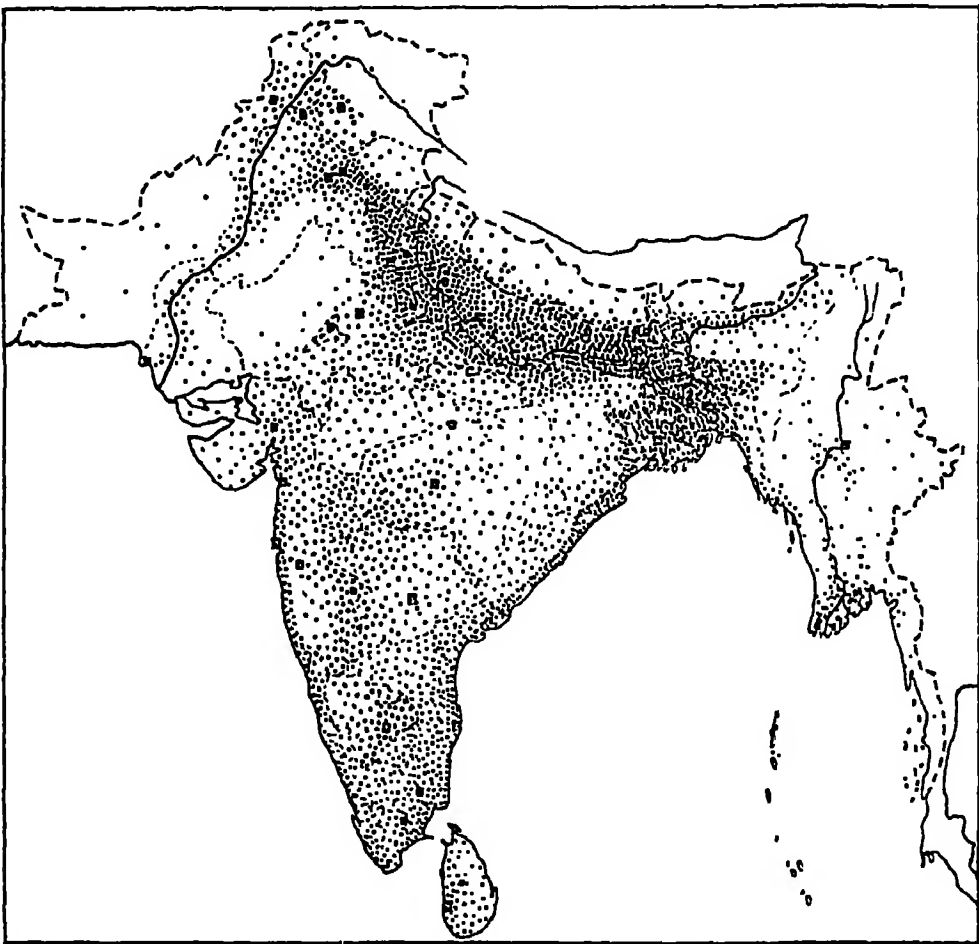


FIG. 52.—The population of India. Each dot represents 100,000 people. Towns with more than 100,000 people are marked by a square dot.

where the artificial vegetation is greatest. Summarizing this we may say that most people live

- (a) in the lowlands or slightly hilly regions ;
- (b) on the tracts of alluvium ;
- (c) both in dry and wet districts ; and
- (d) where the natural vegetation has been removed and cultivated land is shown.

3. **Urban and Rural Population.**—Look again at Fig. 52. Compared with its size there are very few large towns in India. The population is mainly 'rural', that is, the people live in the country near their fields. India is an agricultural country; the population is densest where agriculture is most important. Is this true of all countries? Let us look at the two maps of England and Wales, Figs. 53 and 54,

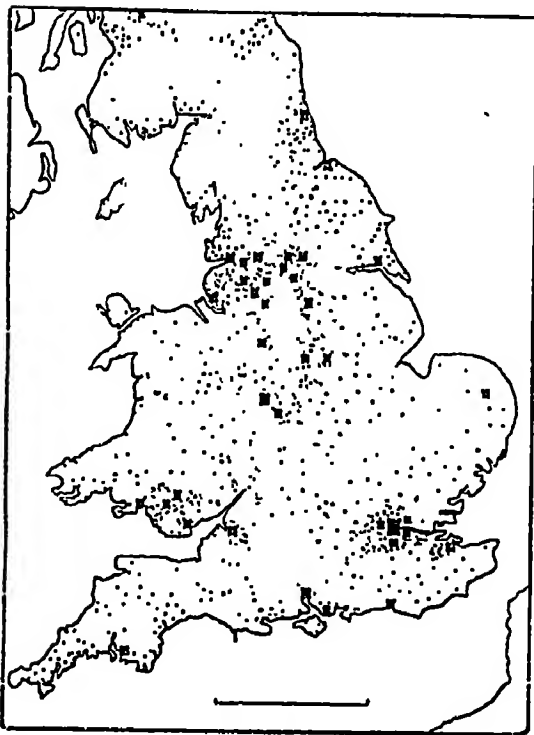


FIG. 53.—Population in England Each dot represents 20,000 people, each square dot a town of more than 100,000 people.

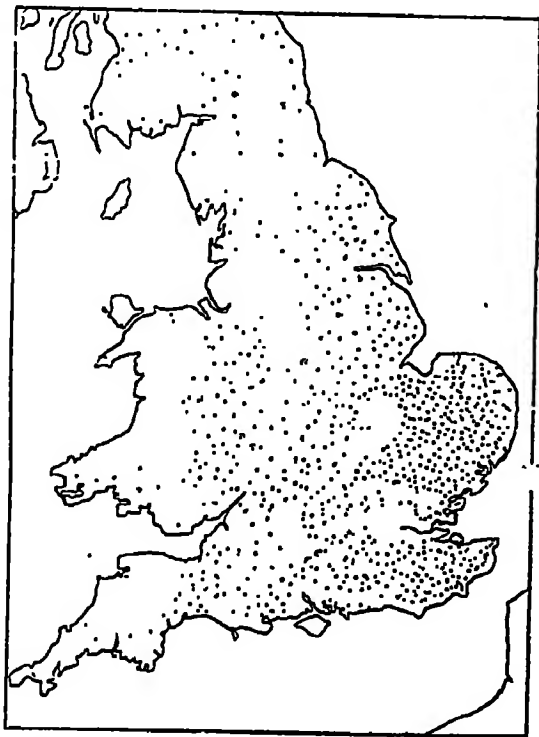


FIG. 54.—Agriculture in England.

showing the distribution of population and agriculture. Notice the large number of big towns. Notice that where agriculture is most important the population is only small. In other words England is exactly the opposite of India. That is because England is an industrial country and most of the people are engaged in industry, in manufactures which are carried on in the big towns. The population is mainly 'urban'. We can really divide the countries of the world into two groups:—

(a) Agricultural countries, engaged in the production of food and raw materials.

(b) Industrial countries, engaged in the manufacture of goods.

In order that agricultural people may live comfortably they must buy manufactured goods from the industrial people; in order that industrial people may live, they must buy food from the agricultural people. So we find there is a big exchange between India and England for the benefit of both countries; an exchange of food grains and raw materials for manufactured goods.

4. **The Races of People in India (excluding Burma).**—The distribution of the different races of people in India is a result of the complicated history of the country.

Ages and ages ago the only people living in India were very wild uncivilized peoples, whom we call the Pre-Dravidian peoples. Then India was invaded by cleverer people whom we may call the Dravidians. They spread all over India and drove the wild inhabitants away to the hills and the thick forests. There are scarcely any descendants of the Pre-Dravidians left now; the best example are the Veddas who live in the forests in the wildest parts of Ceylon. After the Dravidians India was invaded again and again from the north-west by clever, cultured and educated peoples. The invaders—we may call them all together the Indo-Europeans or Indo-Aryan peoples—took possession of all the best lands, such as the fertile plain of Hindustan, and drove the Dravidians into Peninsular India, south of the Satpura line. The Satpura range of mountains formed one of the great barriers which prevented the spread of the invaders to the south.

Wave after wave of different races poured into India and settled there, often intermarrying with the people they conquered, so that to-day the peoples of India are very mixed and it is often difficult to say whether they have descended from the Dravidians or from the later invaders. It is much easier to classify the people according to the language they speak, or according to their religion.

5. **The Races of People in Burma.**—Just as India was invaded again and again from the north-west, so Burma was invaded again and again from the north. But the people who poured into Burma were quite different from those who went to India. Burma was invaded by Mongol peoples—that is people like the Chinese with yellowish or yellowish-

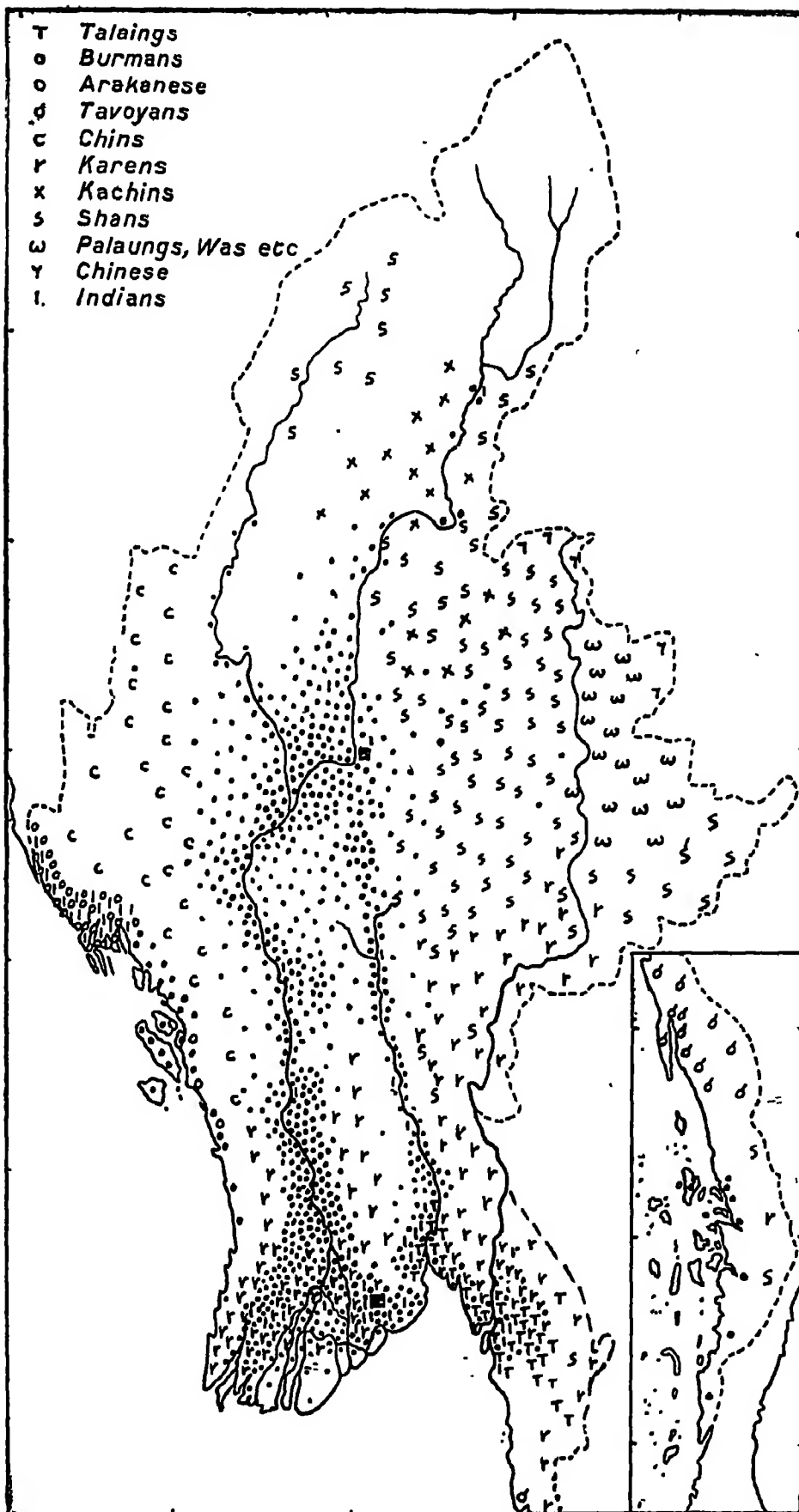


FIG. 55.—Map showing the distribution of Races in Burma. Each dot or symbol represents 10,000 people.

brown skin, smooth broad faces and straight black hair. Nearly all the people living in Burma are Mongols. As in India the wilder peoples were driven away to the hills, the latest invaders and the cleverest (the Burmans) seized the most fertile lands of the river valleys. Fig. 55 shows the distribution of races in Burma. Compare it with a physical map and see how the Chin, Shans, Was, Palaungs and Kachins who are the less educated or less civilized peoples, live in the hills.

6. The Languages of India.—The large number of languages spoken in India is also a result of the history of the country. We can distinguish four main groups.

(a) The Munda languages probably represent the languages spoken by the oldest or Pre-Dravidian inhabitants of India. The languages are very curious—long words are made by stringing together a number of short ones, so that one long word often means as much as a long sentence with us. Munda languages are only spoken by a few of the wildest of the hill tribes who live in the thick forests of the Chota Nagpur Plateau.

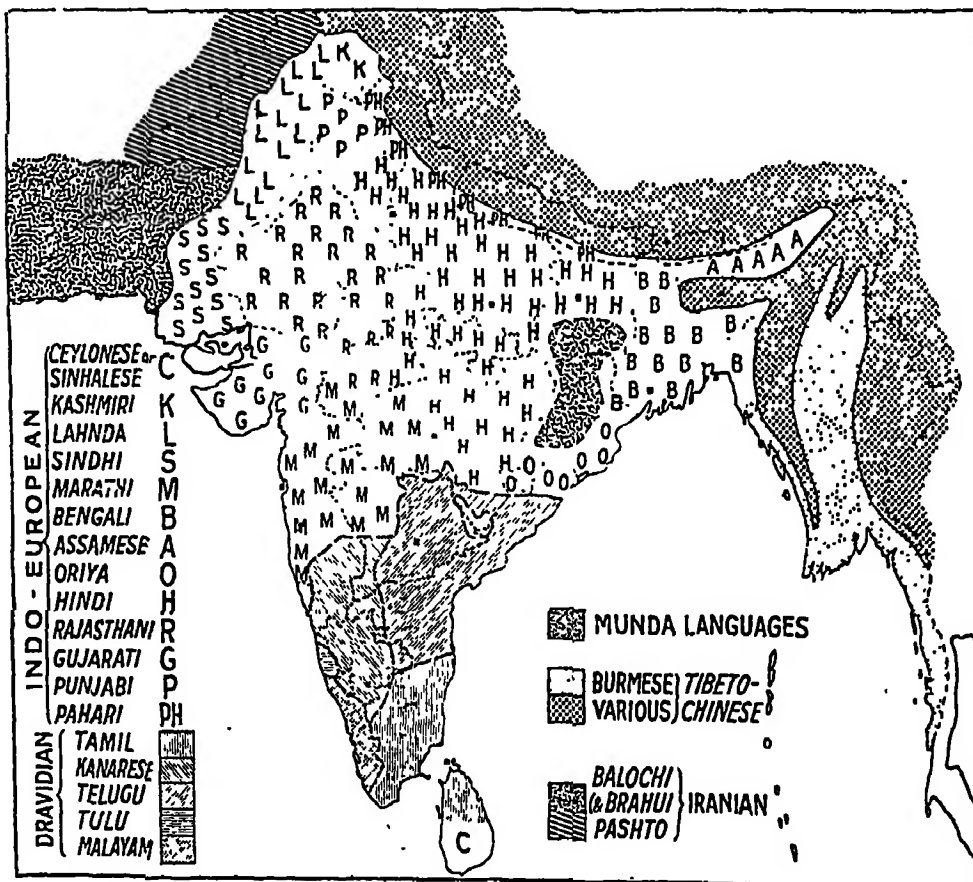


FIG. 56.—Map showing distribution of languages.

(b) The Dravidian languages, once spoken over most of India, are now confined to the Peninsula (see Fig. 56). The principal ones are Tamil, Telugu, Malayalam, Kanarese and Tulu.

(c) The Indo-European languages, which were introduced by the conquerors who came from the north-west. They have spread all over Northern India and a long way down into the Peninsula. There are very numerous different ones. In Baluchistan and the hills nearest the original home of the languages we find Baluchi, Pashto and Brahui (not now spoken by many people). Going south-eastwards are Sindhi, Gujarati and Marathi with Rajasthani further north; going north-eastwards are Lahnda, Pahari, Panjabi, Kashmiri, Western and Eastern Hindi, Bihari, Oriya, Bengali and Assamese.

(d) The Tibeto-Chinese languages, which again are quite different and are the languages of the Mongol peoples. Different languages of this group are spoken by the hill tribes of the Himalayas such as the Lepchas, and also over most of Burma where the principal language is Burmese.

7. *Linguae Francæ*.—When so many different languages are spoken in a country, it is very difficult for people when travelling about to understand one another. It is the same when people travel from one country to another. In order that people may understand one another there are a number of 'Common languages' or '*linguae francæ*,' which are spoken or understood by people although it is not their own language. The most important of all is English, which is spoken or understood over more than half the world. It is understood by educated people throughout India.

Over the whole of Northern India and parts of Burma the common language, used in nearly all the bazaars, is Hindustani. It is really an impure form of Hindi. In Southern India and Ceylon the *lingua franca* is Tamil.

8. *Religion*.—More important than race or even language is Religion. In India the lives of the people are often entirely controlled by religion. It determines their upbringing, education, customs and habits, marriage, occupation, dwelling place, type of home and architecture of towns. Here are just a few examples of the varying

influence of religion. To the Hindus the cow is a sacred animal and they will not eat beef; to the Mohammedans the pig is an unclean animal and they will not eat pork. It is forbidden for a Buddhist to take life and he will not kill an animal for food. Early marriage is the custom amongst certain Hindus and nearly all the girls are married before they are ten years old in certain parts of India.

In some parts of India the 'purdah' system is observed and in Bengal the people do not live in villages but in isolated huts so that the women shall not see one another. Wherever Mohammedans are found, their mosques with the characteristic form of architecture are found also.

We find in India that there are 'religious centres', famous places of pilgrimage or seats of learning connected with one of the religions. Thus Benares with its thousands of Hindu temples and its Hindu colleges is a centre of both the Hindu religion and the culture connected with it. Lahore is a great centre of Mahommedanism, whilst Rangoon and Mandalay in Burma and Kandy in Ceylon are centres of Buddhism. To the Hindus the River Ganges is the most sacred river in the world, to die or to be cremated on its banks is to gain everlasting peace. Hardwar, where the Ganges leaves the mountains is one of the most sacred places of pilgrimage.

9. Distribution of Religions and Cultures.—The principal religious sects of India are :—

(a) Hindus	...	217,000,000	68.5 per cent
(b) Sikhs	...	3,250,000	1 „
(c) Jains	...	1,200,000	.37 „
(d) Buddhists	...	11,500,000	3.7 „
(e) Parsis	...	1,00,000	.07 „
(f) Mohammedans	...	69,000,000	21.7 „
(g) Christians	...	4,750,000	1.5 „
(h) Animists	...	9,750,000	3.1 „

Many of the hill tribes, the backward peoples are Animists, that is they worship spirits which they say live in the trees, or the rocks, etc. Nearly all the Buddhists live in Burma, where the Burmans are Buddhists. There is another centre of Buddhism in Ceylon. The Sikhs, Jains and Parsis are grouped round what we may call 'cultural centres'. The Sikhs are mainly in the Punjab; the Jains in

Rajputana and neighbouring parts of Bombay ; the Parsis in Bombay.

The two greatest religions of all—Hinduism, which may be called the natural religion of India, and Mohammedanism—are widely distributed. Mohammedanism came to India with the later invaders from the north-west and so we find it predominates in Baluchistan, North-West Frontier, Kashmir and the Punjab. There is another strong centre of Mohammedanism in Bengal. Hinduism predominates in other parts of India. Christianity was brought by seafaring peoples and is strongest near the coasts.

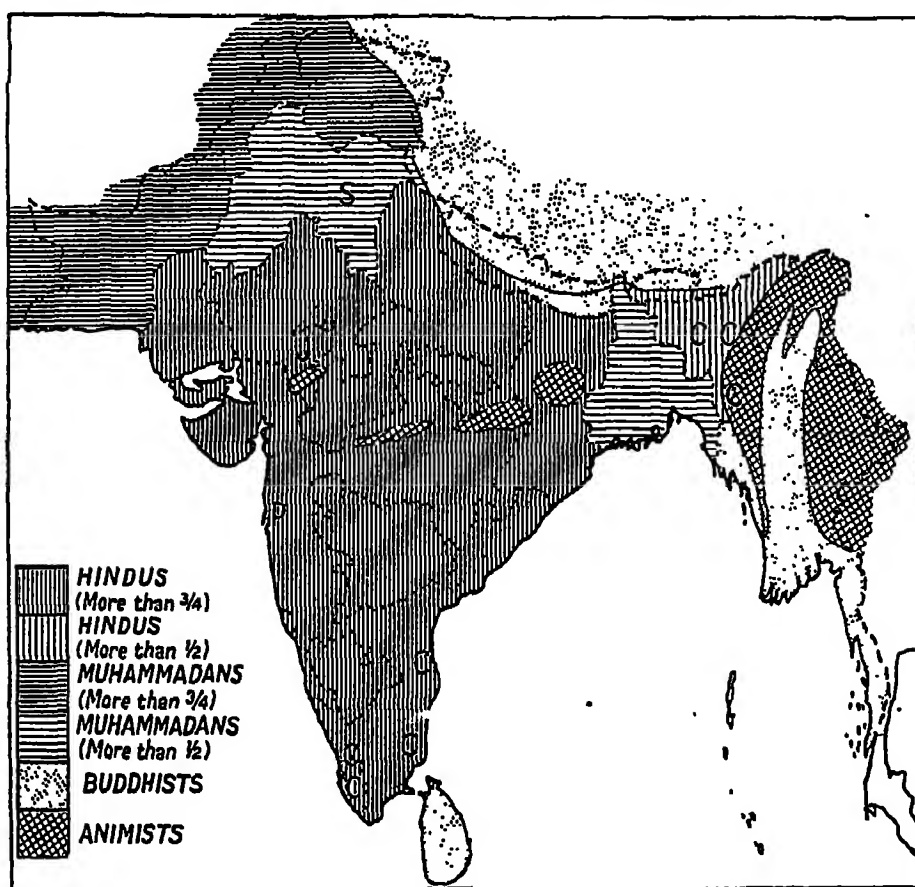


FIG. 57.—Map showing distribution of religions. C = many Christians ; P = Parsi ; S = Sikh ; J = Jain.

Again we notice the geographical control of the spread of religions. Mohammedanism followed along the Hindustan Plain but did not penetrate strongly in Peninsular India. Jainism and the Rajput culture, as well as the Rajasthani language stop short at the Satpura Mountains. Fig. 57 will help you to understand the distribution of religions.

10. **Occupations.**—India is mainly an agricultural country. Fig. 58 shows you the relative importance of other occupations than agriculture. Study Fig. 58 carefully. Although India has always been an agricultural country it has always been noted for the cleverness and skill of its people in



FIG. 58.—Occupations of the people in India.

making cloth and silk, working in metal and ivory and wood. Machine-made articles can be produced so much more cheaply than hand-made articles and India is fast taking her place in the world as a manufacturing country as well as an agricultural country. We can still distinguish

- (a) the old native industries of hand-made articles ;
- (b) the new factory industries of machine made articles.

11. **Manufactures of India—**

(a) *Cotton Goods.*—The most important native industry has always been the weaving of cotton fabrics. Cotton is one of the native plants of India and though enormous quantities are produced for export, nearly half is used in the country. In some parts of India and Burma every house has its hand-loom where the women make their saris or dhotis for the men. More important now are the great cotton factories. The most important cotton manufacturing centre is Bombay where a quarter of a million people are employed in the cotton mills. There are also mills in the Madras Presidency and in the Central Provinces. For the manufacture of cotton goods a certain amount of moisture in the air is required. Bombay has this right amount of moisture, Karachi has not. So that although Bombay and Karachi are both ports exporting raw cotton, only Bombay has in addition cotton mills.

(b) *Jute.*—Just as Bombay is the centre of the cotton manufacturing industries, so Calcutta is the centre of the jute mills. Jute, as you have learnt, is grown in the Ganges Delta. A large quantity is exported raw, but the mills round Calcutta and up the River Hooghly make large

quantities of jute canvas and 'gunny bags'—that is, sacks in which paddy and other grain are packed for transport.

(c) *Silk*.—India has long been famous for its beautiful silks, and many of the fine old towns are still noted for special kinds. But the industry is very small when compared with cotton or jute. Much of the raw silk is imported from China, but native Indian silk is also produced. Bengal is the chief silk producing province. Brocaded silk goods are made in Bengal, the Punjab and Southern India; striped silks and the famous gold brocades all over Northern India at such centres as Agra, Benares, Amritsar, Ahmedabad and Surat. Burmese silk, made near Mandalay, is quite different but is very good.

(d) *Woollen Goods*.—India has also long been celebrated for woollen goods, especially carpets and shawls. The weaving of shawls is a typical industry of Kashmir. Carpet-making is carried on in many parts of India, but especially in the Punjab, Kashmir and the Central Provinces. Coarse blankets are made in many parts of Northern India where the winters are cold.

In the cotton, silk and woollen industries native vegetable dyes such as indigo were once used, but now cheap artificial dyes are imported.

(e) *Metal Working*.—Iron work is another old industry of India, but the great Tata Iron and Steel Works are the only large modern iron works. Many castes in India use brass for all cooking utensils and brassworking is an important industry in many towns of Northern India, as Benares, Bombay and Poona are centres of silver working, Jaipur and Delhi of gold working.

(f) *Pottery*.—The making of pottery for domestic purposes is a cottage industry everywhere in India. Bricks and tiles are made all over Northern India.

(g) *Other Manufactures*.—There are numerous rice mills in Burma; wheat flour mills in the Punjab; saw mills in Assam and Burma; oil refineries in Burma, Assam and the Punjab; tobacco factories in Madras, Burma, etc., as well as sugar mills in various parts. In Ceylon the rubber industry is important, and tea packing in Assam and Ceylon.

CHAPTER XI

IRRIGATION IN INDIA

1. **Irrigation.**—In the last chapter we learnt the somewhat surprising fact that there is a dense population not only in the wet, fertile regions but also in many of the very dry parts: Yet in Chapter VII we learnt that forests would not grow properly with much less than 40 inches of rainfall and that with less than 30 inches it was difficult to grow trees at all. The same is true of many food crops. How then is it possible for a dense population to live in such dry regions? Although the rainfall is very small there are sometimes large rivers running through the regions and the water from the rivers can be brought to the fields to nourish the crops. There are other sources of water besides rivers. The artificial bringing of water to the fields is called irrigation. We will now consider briefly the different kinds of irrigation. In no other country of the world is irrigation as important as it is in India.

2. **Perennial Canal Irrigation.**—By far the most important type of irrigation is by means of canals which have water in them all the year round. Many of the canals are hundreds of miles long and the construction of them costs enormous sums of money. It is only when there is a strong and wise Government that such works can be constructed. The British Government has spent the tremendous sum of 100 crores of rupees on irrigation works in India and 50,000,000 acres have been made fertile for the poor farmers. The most important works are in the drier parts of the great Hindustan Plain—in the Punjab, United Provinces and Sind. Although the rainfall in these parts of the Hindustan Plain is poor, there is a good rainfall, as well as a heavy snowfall, on the Himalaya Mountains to the north. As a result the rivers which rise in those mountains are never dry but are always bringing water down from the mountains to the plains. In some seasons of the year there is more water than at others. It sometimes happens that most water is required for irrigation when the river

is at its lowest. The first stages in building a great irrigation canal are

(a) to choose a suitable spot on the river where its supply of water can be tapped ;

(b) to build across the river a wall (called a dam or weir) so that the water can collect behind to form a lake which will never be dry. In the rainy season more water will flow into this lake than is required and it is allowed to escape over the wall. But in the dry season nearly all the water in the lake will be used for the canal.

The dam or weir from which the canal starts is called the 'head' of the canal. The main canal is then cut right across the country. The slope of the canal is very, very gentle so that the water only moves slowly and not rapidly as it does in many rivers. Often the surface of the land slopes more rapidly than is desirable for the canal and so the canal has to be built upon an embankment. From the main canal big branch canals are constructed. The water is actually distributed to the land through a series of small side branches called distributary canals. The amount of water passing into these small canals has to be very carefully regulated.

Besides the great works in the Hindustan Plain there are important canal systems in Madras and Central Burma, about which you will learn in later chapters.

3. **Inundation Canals.**—In Sind and in certain other parts of India canals are constructed, starting from the bank of a river. The water of the river overflows into them in the flood season, but in the Hot Season the canals dry up, so that they are not nearly so useful as the permanent canals.

4. **Tanks.**—In most of the drier parts of Peninsular India mud walls are built across the valleys of small streams so that water collects and forms a pond or lake during the wet season. Such ponds or lakes are called tanks. When the rainy season is over, the water from the tanks can be used, but in the hot season the tanks dry up completely. In bad rainfall years the tanks may not even be filled during the rains.

5. **Wells.**—Although the surface of the land may be dry in the drier regions, there is often water at a short distance below the surface. This water can be reached by wells and brought up to water the surface.

6. Karez.—In Baluchistan, but in no other part of India, there is a very clever system of irrigation. The rainfall on the hills is greater than on the plains and when the little streams from the hills reach the plains, the water sinks into the ground. Long underground tunnels called karez have been constructed to reach this water at the foot of the hills and to bring it out on to the alluvial plains.

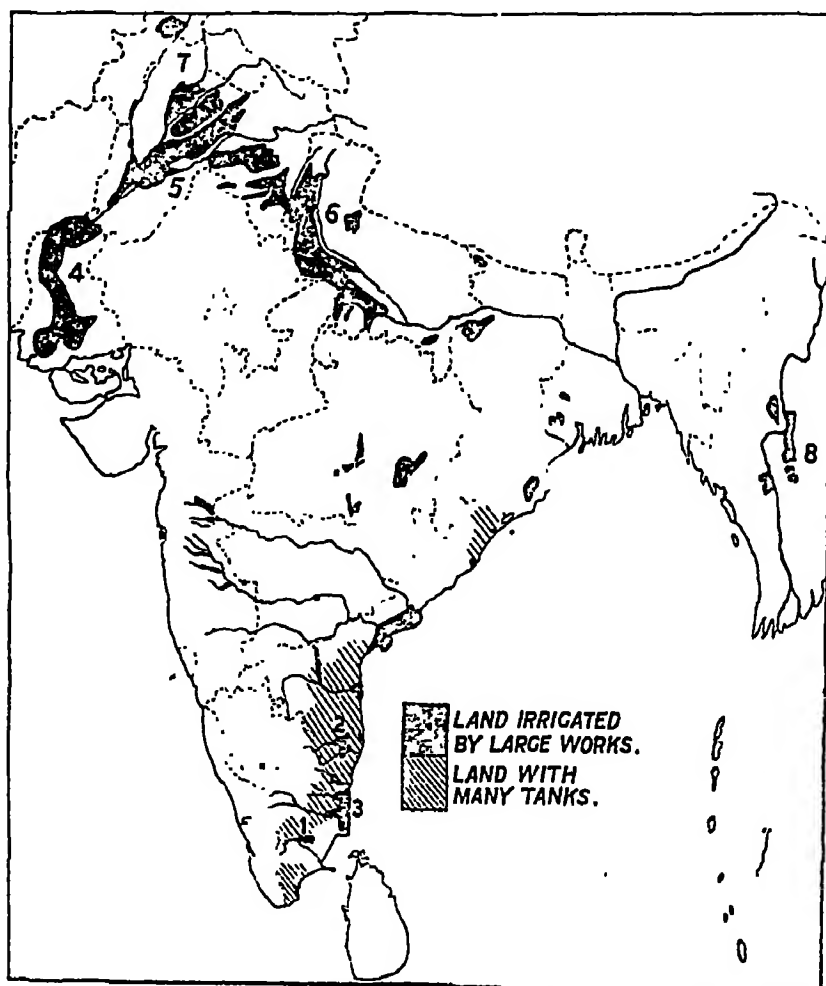


FIG. 59.—Irrigation in India.

1. Penner system. 2. Poini, Palar and Cheyyar system.
3. Cauvery Delta system. 4. Sind Canals. 5. Punjab Canals.
6. United Provinces Canals. 7. Peshawar Canals (Swat Canals).
8. Upper Burma Canals.

Fig. 59 shows you the more important irrigated regions in India.

7. Famine.—In times past India has suffered terribly from famine. The parts which suffer most are those parts which

have a moderate rainfall but which depend entirely on 'dry' crops. In bad rainfall years the crops may fail and the people be without food. Notice that famine is not to be feared in tracts irrigated by large works but in the dry parts where irrigation cannot be carried out. The drier parts of the plateau suffer most. In the old days many thousands of people perished but now there are railways and food can be sent quickly from one part of the country to another.

CHAPTER XII

THE POLITICAL DIVISIONS OF INDIA

1. **Government of India.**—The great Indian Empire is ruled by the Government of India, at the head of which is the Viceroy or Governor-General. The Viceroy is assisted by a small Council so that the acts of the Government of India are always said to be by order of 'The Governor-General in Council'. The Viceroy and Council are advised in all matters by the Legislative Assembly, a large body of men elected by the people themselves in all parts of the country. The Legislative Assembly is mainly responsible for the making of laws. Although the Government of India with its Council and Legislative Assembly is the real means of Government in India, many matters have to be referred to the Capital of the British Empire, London, where they are administered by the Secretary of State for India. As you will learn from your history, a great part of India used to be controlled by the East India Company. When the possessions of that company were taken over and the Government of India was formed, the proclamation declared that 'all shall alike enjoy the equal and impartial protection of the law' whatever their race or religion and that all offices in the Government should be open to all natives of India, whatever their race or creed. Education, ability and integrity are the only qualifications required for Government service.

India is divided into two parts, British India which is controlled directly by the Government of India, and the Native States which are governed by their own native rulers.

Since 1912 the seat of Government or Capital of India has been Delhi. For many years before that it was at Calcutta.

2. **Provinces.**—It would be very difficult to govern a huge area like India from one centre such as Delhi, so the Indian Empire has been divided into a number of Provinces. There are nine major provinces and six minor ones. The nine major provinces of Madras, Bombay, Bengal, the

United Provinces, the Punjab, Burma, Bihar and Orissa, Assam and the Central Provinces are ruled each by a Governor assisted by a Legislative Council (elected mainly by the people). The six minor provinces are each administered by Chief Commissioners. The other provinces are North-West Frontier Province, Ajmer-Merwara, Coorg, Baluchistan, Delhi and the Andaman-Nicobar Islands.

3. **Native States.**—Then there are large areas of India, called Native States, ruled by their own chiefs (styled Maharajas, Rajahs, etc.). Generally the ruler is advised by a political officer appointed by the Government of India, but the native ruler otherwise has complete control of his affairs. Some of the Native States are very large like Hyderabad or Mysore, others embrace only a few square miles. The larger Native States have connections directly with the Government of India; the smaller ones have relations with the Governments of the Provinces in which they are situated.

Included geographically in India are certain entirely independent states like Nepal.

4. **Ceylon.**—Quite separate in Government is Ceylon, which forms an island off the south of India and only separated from it by a narrow strait. It forms one of the 'Crown Colonies' of the British Empire. It is ruled by a Governor, a small executive Council and a Legislative Council elected by the people.

5. **The French Possessions.**—These possessions consist of various ports and small tracts of land scattered round the coast of India. Pondicherry is the capital. Others are Mahé, Karikal, Yanaon and Chandarnagar. They are ruled by a French Governor and send two representatives to the French Parliament in Paris.

6. **The Portuguese Possessions.**—These possessions consist of various ports round the coast. The largest tract of land is Goa. Others are Diu Island and Daman.

CHAPTER XIII

THE NATURAL REGIONS OF INDIA

1. *Political and Natural Divisions.*—In the last chapter we learnt that India is divided up into a number of Provinces and Native States. These are 'political' divisions which have been made by men. You learn in your history how that the political divisions of countries have been frequently changed. This may happen even in times of peace. For example in 1912 the Capital of India was moved from Calcutta to Delhi and a portion of the Province of the Punjab was cut off to form a district round Delhi. In 1905 and again in 1912 Government completely altered all its provinces in North-eastern India.

But we have learnt in this book of many features which cannot be changed:—The position of the mountains, plains and plateaux; the geology and soils; and the climate, especially the rainfall. We have seen how these natural features control the vegetation, the agriculture and the distribution of man. In studying the geography it is much better, then, if we divide the country up into regions based on natural features. These must always remain the same, however much the political boundaries may change.

2. *Natural Regions.*—You must not think that a natural region is one which has not been touched by man. There are natural regions where man has done very little to alter the nature of the country but there are other natural regions like the Ganges Delta or the Punjab Plains where man has done a great deal to alter the country.

In the maps in this book you will find that the natural regions have been marked off by lines. In some cases it is possible to say very closely where one natural division ends and another begins. For example, where the Salt Range rises from the Punjab Plains is the dividing line between two regions. It is very clear. Again, the crest of the Western Ghats has been used to separate the West Coast Region from the Deccan Regions. It is a definite line. But in other cases it is not so, and it is difficult to

say where one region ends and another begins. One region fades gradually into another. Thus the Rajput Uplands slope down gently from the Aravalli Range, become drier and fade gradually into the Thar Desert. It follows, therefore, that although the map may show a line separating two natural regions, it may actually be very difficult to say where the dividing line should be drawn.

As far as possible a natural region should be a division of a country, having the same physical features throughout (mountainous, hilly, plateau or plain), possibly the same geological structure (old hard rocks, folded mountains, alluvium, etc.) and the same climate throughout. As a result the natural vegetation and the agriculture through the whole region are the same, whilst quite often the region is inhabited by one race of men, speaking the same language and having the same customs. In the latter case the natural geographical region is also a 'cultural region'.

It must often happen, that the regions into which we can divide a country are not ideal regions. A region may vary a little from one part to another; it may be wetter at one end than the other; or it may change gradually from a plateau at one end to a plain at the other.

In dividing a country into its natural regions we must try to take *all* the natural features into consideration and not only some of them. Sometimes one is more important than another.

3. **Natural Regions of India.—Groups.**—India is a very, very large country and we have to divide it into a large number of natural regions. In Chapter III of this book we noticed that the country falls into four or five great physical divisions. It will be simpler if we group together the natural regions according to these physical divisions which we talked about in Chapter II. This gives us the following arrangement:—

- (a) Natural Regions of the Mountain Wall.
- (b) Natural Regions of the Hindustan Plain.
- (c) Natural Regions of the Indian Plateau.
- (d) Natural Regions of Ceylon.
- (e) Natural Regions of Burma.

4. **The Natural Regions of the Mountain Wall.**—These natural regions have one thing in common. They are all mountainous, or very hilly, or consist of high plateau surrounded

by mountains. Perhaps you will say why does not the Mountain Wall form only *one* natural region? One answer is because the climate varies enormously from end to end. One place in Assam near the eastern end has the heaviest rainfall in the world; some places near the western end have practically no rain at all. Further the higher parts are much colder and different therefore from the lower parts. We usually find that a physical region must be further divided according to climate.

We therefore divide the Mountain Wall into the following regions:—

(1) The Eastern Hills Region—comprising the eastern part of the mountain wall, separating India from Burma. It is very wet, forested, and thinly populated.

(2) The Himalayan Region—comprising the Himalayan Mountain Chain from 5,000 feet upwards.

(3) The Sub-Himalayan Region—comprising the foothills between the plains and the mountains as well as the lower slopes of the Himalayas up to 5,000 feet.

(4) The Tibetan Plateau—on the far side of the Himalaya Mountains. It is the highest plateau in the world, away from the reach of the monsoon and is an Alpine desert.

(5) The North-western Dry Hills—the north-western area of the Mountain Wall, a very dry region.

(6) The Baluchistan Plateau—the western part of the Mountain Wall, a very dry plateau surrounded by hills.

5. The Natural Regions of the Hindustan Plain.—The great alluvial plain of Hindustan is again divisible according to climate.

(7) The Lower Indus Valley or Sind—a very dry alluvial plain depending almost entirely on inundation canals from the River Indus.

(8) The Punjab Plains—another very dry alluvial plain, depending almost entirely on canals from the five rivers of the Punjab.

(9) The Upper Ganges Valley—a dry region in which nearly half the country depends on perennial irrigation canals from the Jumna and the Ganges.

(10) The Middle Ganges Valley—an intermediate area, with a mixture of wet

(11) The Lower Ganges Valley or the Deltas—a wet alluvial region characterized by wet crops, notably rice.

(12) The Brahmaputra Valley—a wet valley, much narrower than the Ganges Plains and less thickly populated.

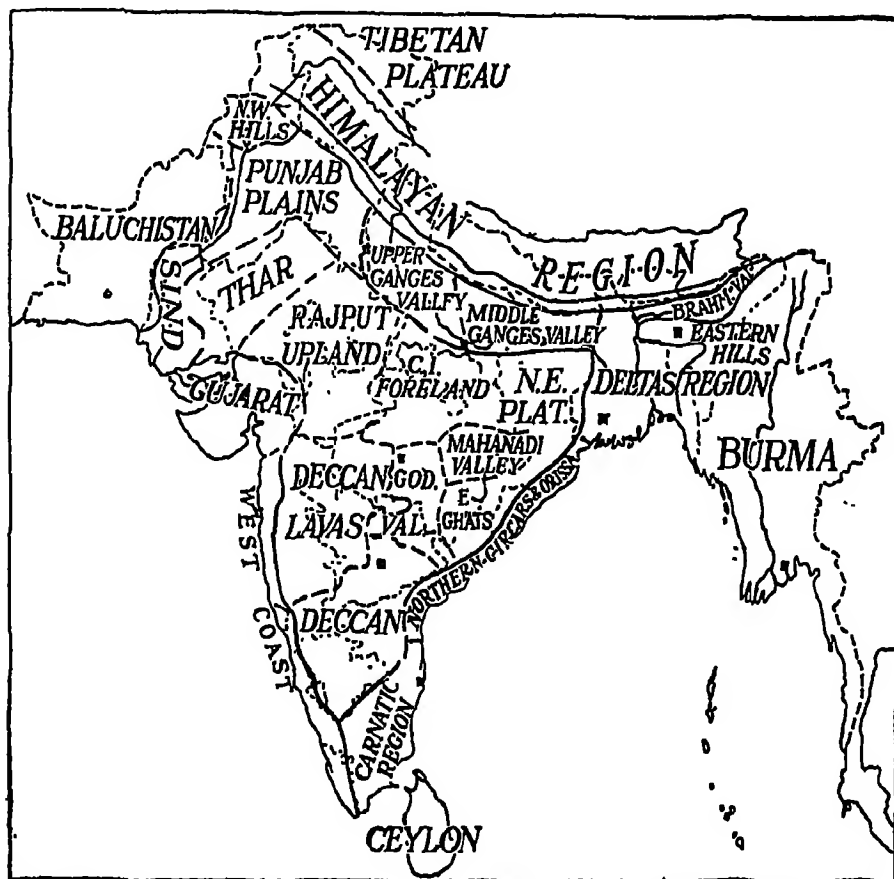


FIG. 60.—Natural Regions of India.

6. The Natural Regions of the Indian Plateau.—The whole of India south of the Hindustan Plain may be called the Indian Plateau. We might call it Peninsular India but most people when they use that term mean only the land south of the Satpura Range. We may distinguish ten natural regions grouped as follows :—

(a) Coastal Regions round the Plateau proper.—

(13) The Gujarat Region—dry or moderately dry, hilly in places.

(14) The West Coast Region—comprises a narrow coastal plain and the slopes of the Western Ghats; very wet.

(15) The Carnatic or Tamil Region—comprises a broad coastal plain and an inland hilly part ; moderately wet, with the rain falling mainly in October, November and December.

(16) The Northern Circars Region, including Orissa—a coastal plain moderately wet.

(b) Regions north of the Satpura Mountain Line and sloping down towards the Hindustan Plain.—

(17) The Thar or Great Indian Desert.

(18) The Rajput Upland Region—dry to very dry, hilly, sloping upwards from the Thar and Punjab Plains towards the Satpura Range.

(19) The Central Indian Foreland or Central India Plateau—dry, sloping upwards from the Ganges Plain to the Central India Highlands.

(c) Regions of the Plateau (Peninsular India proper).—

(20) The Deccan or high southern part of the Plateau, dry, somewhat barren and thinly populated.

(21) The Deccan Lavas Region or north-western part of the plateau, dry but with a very fertile black soil, very suited for cotton, moderately thickly populated.

(22) The North-western plateau—a complex region comprising five sub-divisions—the Central Indian Highlands, Chota Nagpur Plateau, Eastern Ghats, Chhattisgarh Plain or Mahanadi Valley and the Godavari Valley. The region, as a whole, has a moderate rainfall (40 to 60 inches) and is thinly peopled and largely forested. The people live mainly in the two valley areas.

7. **The Natural Regions of Ceylon.**—Ceylon is influenced by both the South-West and the North-East Monsoons and so its climate varies very greatly from one part to another. Properly Ceylon should be divided into a large number of small regions, but it is possible to distinguish three main ones :—

(23) The Central Hills of Ceylon—a hilly region consisting of old hard rocks and enjoying a good rainfall.

(24) The Coastal Plains—flat, but varying greatly in rainfall from one part to another, but with an equable temperature.

(25) The Northern Limestone Plain—flat, rather dry and with a poor soil.

8. **The Natural Regions of Burma.**—Burma, as we have already

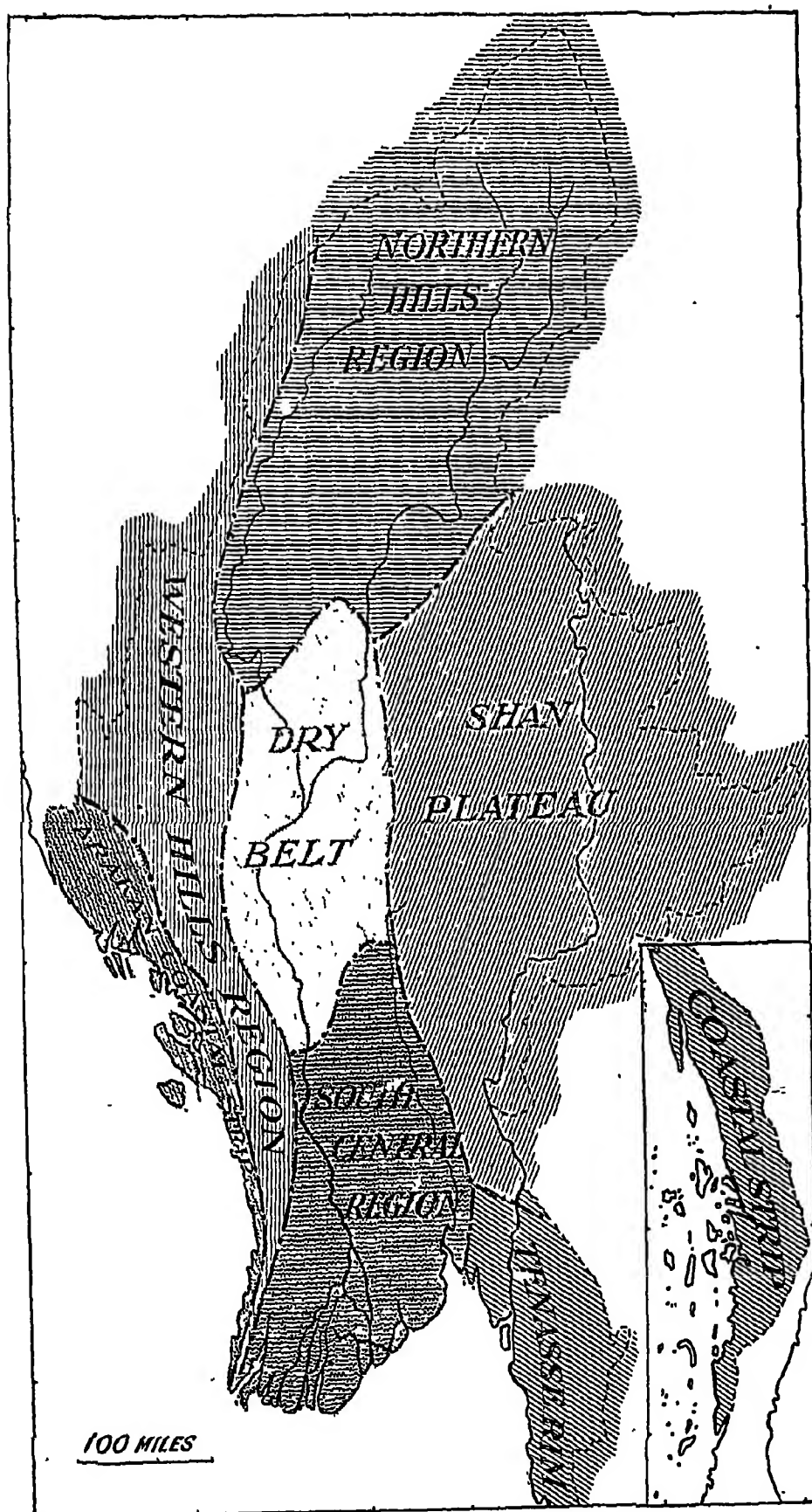


FIG. 61.—The Natural Regions of Burma

said, is very distinct from the rest of India and falls into seven natural regions. One of these (the Western Hills Region) is part of the Eastern Hills Region of India and comprises the Mountain Wall which separates Burma from India. The other regions are:—

(26) The Arakan Coastal Strip—very wet, hilly, very thinly populated.

(27) The Tenasserim Coastal Strip—very wet, hilly or mountainous, covered with evergreen forest, very thinly populated.

(28) The Shan Plateau—a plateau of old rocks, moderately wet, thinly populated and backward.

(29) The Northern Hills region—a hilly region, sloping southwards, wet or very wet, undeveloped.

(30) The Dry Belt—a dry plain, fairly thickly populated.

(31) The Delta Region—mainly an alluvial plain, wet to very wet and devoted to rice cultivation, divided into two parts by a forest covered range of hills.

9. Differences between regions.—There are, of course, many other differences between the natural regions, which we shall see when we come to study each in detail. Fig. 60 is a map of India showing the natural regions. An attempt has been made to show where the line between two regions is marked and where there is a gradual change. Study this map very carefully. Fig. 61 shows the natural regions of Burma.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. What is a natural region?
2. Why is it better to use natural regions in studying the geography of a country than to use political divisions?
3. Construct a table, showing at a glance the differences between the natural regions of India. Mark the regions one under the other and opposite draw 10 columns, one each for physical features, geology, temperature, wind, rainfall, natural vegetation, agriculture, density of population, language, religion.

CHAPTER XIV

✓ ASSAM

I. THE PROVINCE

Assam has been a separate province since 1912. Its population is only $7\frac{1}{2}$ millions, and there is still plenty of room for more people in many parts of Assam. It is ruled by a Governor with a Legislative Council. The seat of Government is Shillong, on the high healthy plateau but not served by railway.

Physical Features.—Assam falls into three separate divisions :—

- (a) The Brahmaputra Valley along the north.
- (b) The Hills Region consisting of the hills which separate Assam from Burma, and sending a broad finger westwards to form the Khasi, Jaintia and Garo Hills.
- (c) The Surma Valley in the south, which joins on to, and really forms part of the great Delta Region of Bengal.

Along the north of Assam lie the Himalaya Mountains, and certain tracts (the Balipara Frontier tract and Sadiya Frontier tract) of Assam, as well as the neighbouring State of Bhutan, form part of the mountain region.

The first two physical regions form natural regions which lie wholly within the province and we will describe them in detail, but the Surma Valley will be described later with Bengal.

II. THE BRAHMAPUTRA VALLEY

1. **General Features.**—The Brahmaputra or Assam Valley is very different from the broad alluvial plains of the Ganges Valley. On the north side the lower slopes of the Himalaya Mountains are not far away, on the south side the slopes of the Assam Hills—the Garo, Khasi and Jaintia Hills—approach close to the river. Much of the flat land in

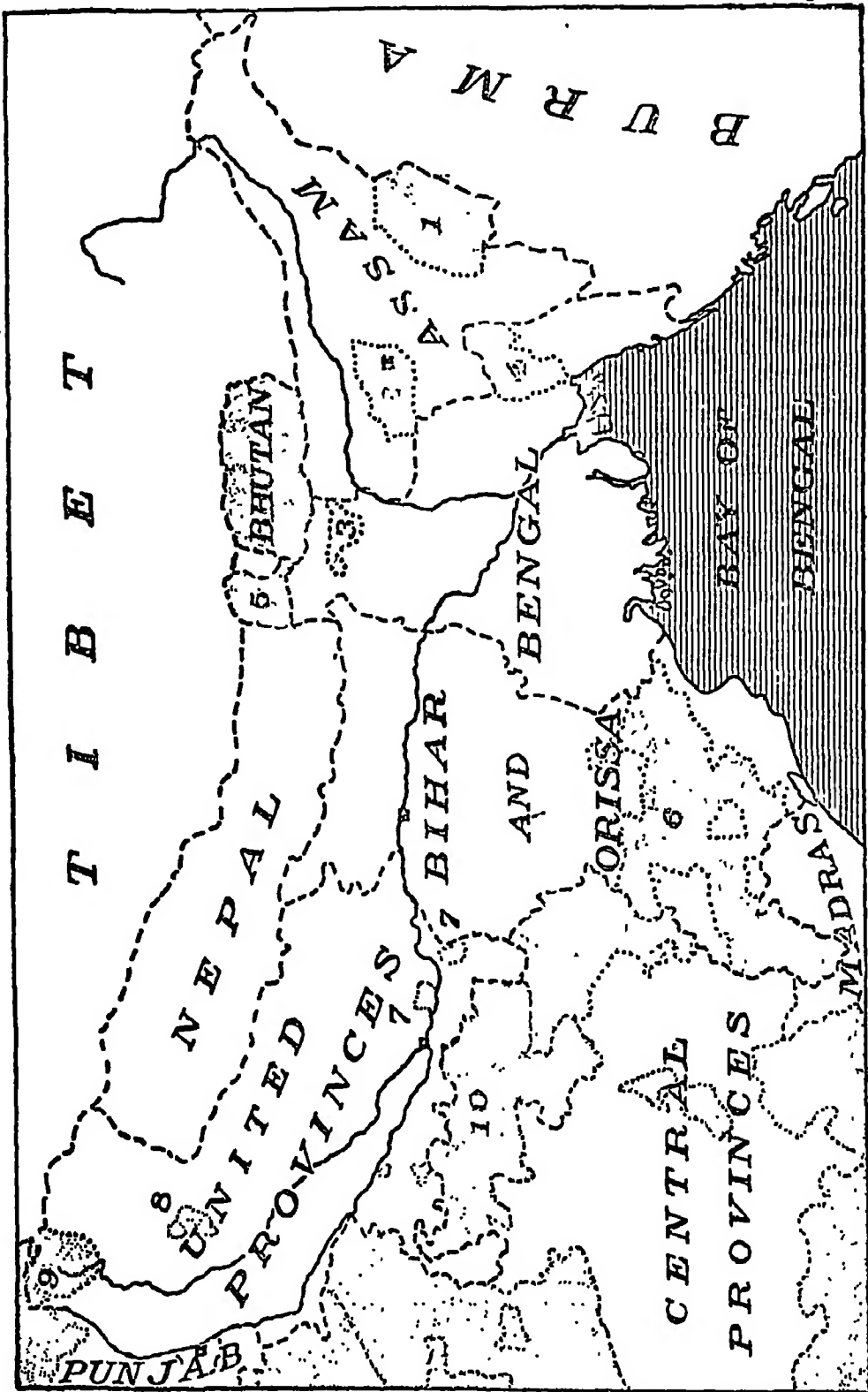


FIG. 62.—Political divisions of North-Eastern India.

Native States dotted. 1. Manipur; 2. Khasi and Jaintia Hills; 3. Cooch Behar; 4. Hill Tippera; 5. Sikkim; 6. Orissa States; 7. Benares State; 8. Rampur; 9. Garhwal; 10. Central India.

the Brahmaputra Valley is used for rice growing ; on the gentle slopes are the tea gardens for which Assam is famous.

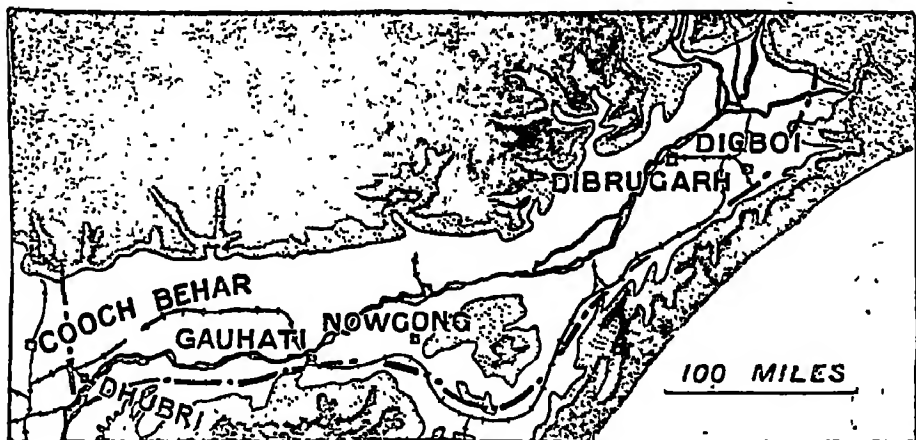


FIG. 63.—The Brahmaputra Valley. Notice the long narrow valley between the great mass of the Himalaya Mountains on the north and the Eastern Hills Region on the south and south-east.

The River Brahmaputra rises in the plateau of Tibet and flows for a very long distance eastwards before breaking through the northern Mountain Wall into Assam. The Brahmaputra Valley in Assam is roughly 500 miles long, but only about 50 miles wide. The river itself is broad, it divides and reunites again many times. On either side there is often a waste marshy belt, but a little distance from the river are flat lands given over to rice growing: Palm trees and villages are dotted about amongst the paddy fields; further away from the river are found the gentle slopes covered with tea gardens. The Brahmaputra receives many tributaries from either side but none of them is important.

2. Climate.—Look now at Fig. 39, the Rainfall Map, and notice that a great part of the Assam Valley has a good rainfall of more than 80 inches, but in the centre there is a large oval patch where the rainfall is less than 80 inches. You have learnt in Chapter VI the reason for this drier patch; it is because part of the Brahmaputra Valley lies in the 'Rain-shadow' of the Garo, Khasi and Jaintia Hills. Notice how these hills shelter the valley from the South-West Monsoon. You should notice, too, that the Brahmaputra Valley is further north than the great plains of the

Deltas Region and so is colder in the cold season (Fig. 18). In the Hot Season and the Rains, the sky is cloudy and so the land does not get so hot and dry as it does in the broad Upper Ganges Valley.

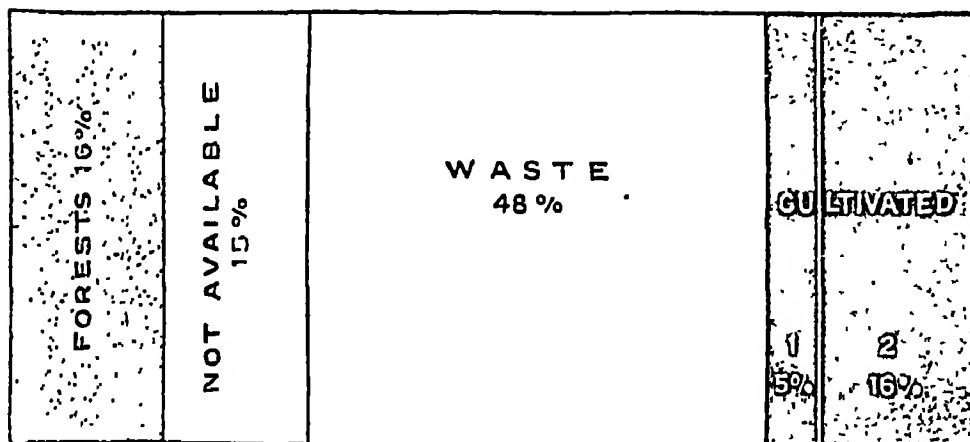


FIG. 64.—Proportion of cultivated land in the Brahmaputra Valley. Cultivated land —1. 'fallow'; 2. 'sown'.

3. People.—Look now at Fig. 64 and notice that a considerable part of the Brahmaputra Valley is cultivated. Near the great Ganges Plain (that is the Deltas Region or North Bengal) in the western districts of Goalpara and Kamrup the population is densest and more land is cultivated than at the eastern end of the plain. But Fig. 64 shows you that there is still a large amount of waste land which might be cultivated. There are still only 150 people to the square mile, instead of 500 or more which we find in each square mile of the Ganges Valley or Delta Districts. Every year large numbers of Bengalis come from the more crowded parts of Eastern Bengal and settle in Assam, Nepalis come from the Himalayas and find in the Assam Valley more fertile land. There are large numbers of Biharis employed in the tea gardens and every year many of them give up work in the tea-gardens and settle down to cultivate the waste land of the Brahmaputra Valley and more Biharis come from Bihar and Orissa to take their places in the tea gardens. The population is thus rapidly increasing and the waste land is gradually being used.

4. **Crops.**—Now let us look at the crops of the Brahmaputra Valley (Fig. 65). Rice occupies by far the largest area, and it forms the principal food of the people. Nearly all the rice produced is used by the people and there is little or none left over for sending to other countries. The second most important crop is tea. Tea is made by drying the

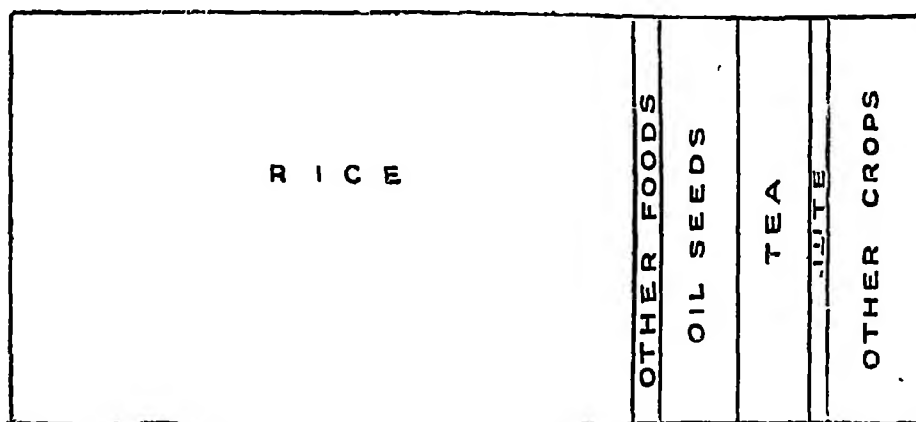


FIG. 65.—The crops of the Brahmaputra Valley.

young leaves of a small bush or shrub. The tea bushes are planted in neat rows on gentle hill slopes on either side of the Brahmaputra Valley and these tea gardens give work to a large number of people in Assam. Nearly 120 people out of every 1,000 living in Assam work in the tea gardens and a great many of the workers are Biharis from Bihar. Look at Fig. 49 (map showing the distribution of tea) and notice that the tea gardens stretch beyond the Brahmaputra Valley westwards into the Sub-Himalayan Region in Northern Bengal—in Darjeeling and Jalpaiguri. The sides of the Brahmaputra Valley where the tea is grown are, indeed, very like the lower lands of the Sub-Himalayan Region. Notice too, that a considerable quantity of tea is also grown near Sylhet, on the borders of the Garo or Khasi Hills and the flat lands of the Surma Valley. This is not of course, part of the Brahmaputra Valley, but the conditions are similar. Tea is a crop which is grown not so much for the people themselves as for sending to other countries, and Assam sends a very large quantity of tea to Europe, especially the British Isles, where the people drink much tea.

Oilseeds form another important crop in the Assam Valley.

5. **Minerals.**—At the eastern end of the Assam Valley region, on the borders of the Eastern Hills Region, is the Oilfield of Digboi, and there is a small coalfield in this part of the region also.

Notice the railways of this Natural Region. The western end of the Valley is connected with Bengal by a branch of the Eastern Bengal Railway. Running along the eastern part of the valley, south of the river, is the Assam-Bengal Railway but the two railways are separated by the broad Brahmaputra River at Gauhati. The Brahmaputra River is used by country boats for the greater part of its length. Notice the routes into the Eastern Hills Region—from Gauhati to Shillong there is a good motor road; from Dimapur a cart road runs into Manipur State.

III. THE EASTERN HILLS REGION¹ (INCLUDING THE WESTERN HILLS REGION OF BURMA)

1. **General Features.**—From Fig. 66 we see that the Eastern Hills Region sweeps south-westwards from the far corner of Assam, where it is known as the Patkoi Hills, broadens out to form the Naga Hills and includes the State of Manipur. Here the main mass of hills swings southwards forming the Lushai and Chin Hills and Chittagong Hills, passing southwards into Arakan. From the region of the Naga Hills a big branch runs out almost due west forming the Khasi and Jaintia Hills and the Shillong Plateau of Assam and finishing up as the Garo Hills. Notice from Fig. 63 how the Eastern Hills Region is separated in the north from the Himalaya Mountains by the Brahmaputra Valley. Everywhere the Eastern Hills Region forms the 'Mountain Wall' between India and Burma. Narrow in the north, it gets broader in the centre and then gets narrower again, finishing up at Cape Negrais in Burma.

One of the chief considerations which make the Hills Region a separate part of India is that it is very difficult to

¹Comprising a large part of Assam; the district of Garo Hills, Khasi and Jaintia Hills, parts of Cachar and Sibsagar, Naga Hills, Manipur, Lushai Hills; also Chittagong Hill Tracts in Bengal as well as the Western Mountain Wall of Burma.

get into the hills. It is easy to move about the Valley Regions because one can sail on the Ganges, or go by railway from place to place ; one can also travel by bullock cart from one village to the next. But to get into the Hills Region we have to climb from the plains or the Delta

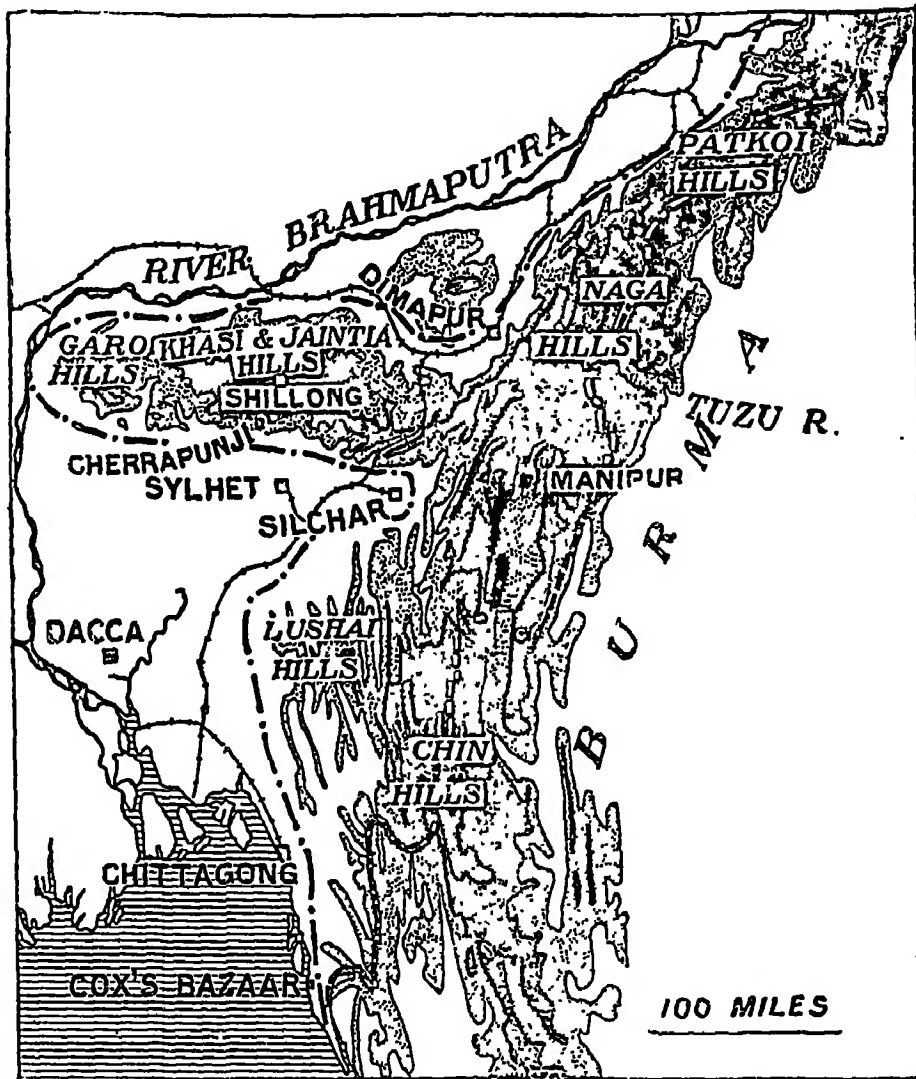


FIG. 66.—Eastern Hills Region.

up the sides of steep hills clothed with thick forest, or follow the rocky valleys of small streams ; and, when we have left the plains below and reach the hills, we find that the country consists of small narrow valleys separated by steep ranges of hills, so that in whatever direction we wish to move we have to toil up and down, along narrow jungle paths, many of which are too steep and difficult even

for ponies or mules. Because it is so difficult to get into the Hills Region, the people of the plains have little to do with the people of the hills, and, in the same way the people of the hills rarely come down to the plains. The hill people have kept themselves often quite apart and, generally speaking, have not progressed nearly so much as the people who live in the plains.

2. **Physical Features.** — In order to find out what the Eastern Hills Region looks like let us climb up amongst the Lushai Hills. Everywhere the slopes of the hills are clothed with thick wet jungle, either tall evergreen forest or a thick tangle of canes and bamboo. As we go we find leeches clinging to our legs and drawing blood. After climbing over a number of ridges covered with forest we find ourselves on a high ridge covered with grass. We are able to see the hills around us and we notice that they are all long ridges running from north to south with long valleys between. We look in the far distance and see higher hills, but nowhere do we see snow covered mountains. Read what is said about the Himalayan Region and notice the differences. The hills we see in

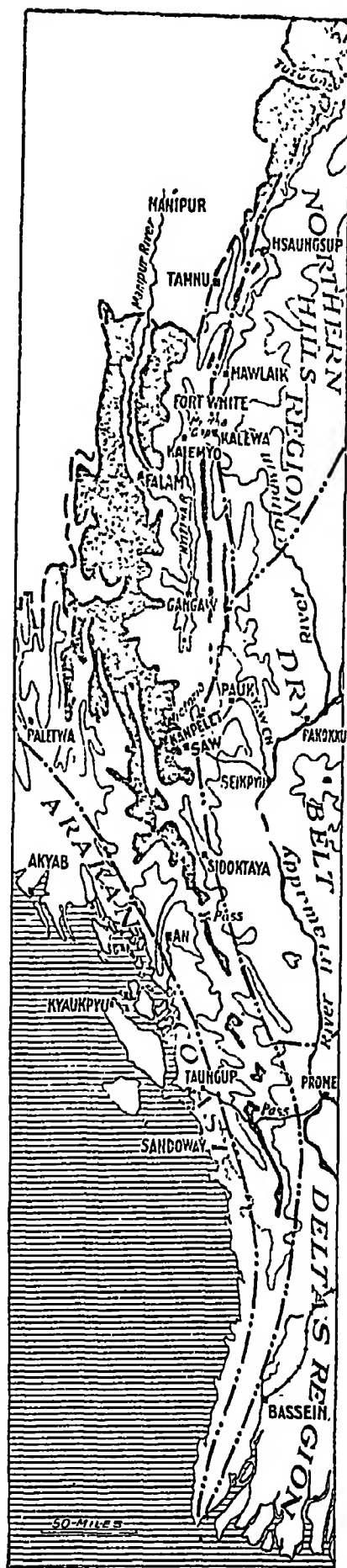


FIG. 67.—Eastern Hills Region, Southern part.

the distance are only about 7,000 feet high—the highest mountain (Mt. Victoria in Burma) is only about 10,000 feet.

Let us walk along the narrow grassy ridge and notice the forests on either side. They are wet and evergreen, but they are different from the forests we passed through on the lower slopes and consist largely of oak trees. Perhaps in some places we may see patches of pine forest. These are found from 4,000 to 4,500 feet above sea-level.

Turn back to Chapter VI and Fig. 42 and note the causes of the heavy rainfall on the Arakan Yoma.

We have not met many people on our journey but here and there we see their villages, each surrounded by a patch of cultivated land. We notice that many of the villages are situated on spurs, near a spring in the hillside, but well placed in case of attack.

Further north than where we have been, the Eastern Hills Region is broader, and in the centre occupying a plateau surrounded by hills is the State of Manipur. Manipur is sheltered by the surrounding ring of hills and has only just over sixty inches of rain. Its soil is fertile and a good quantity of rice is grown—some is actually exported.

3. The Assam Plateau.—Let us now take a journey to another part of the Eastern Hills Region. We will visit that part which juts out from the rest and forms the hills of Assam. We can reach nearly to the foot by a railway which takes us to Sylhet. Then we commence to climb. The hills are here facing the south and receive the full force of the South-West Monsoon. The places on this southward facing slope are some of the rainiest places in the world. Cherrapunji has nearly 500 inches of rain a year and in one year nearly 1,000 inches of rain fell. If the rain water remained where it fell, there would be sufficient for the biggest steamer in the world to float after only one season's rain. When we have passed Cherrapunji we find ourselves on a plateau, called the Shillong Plateau. We pass the crest and the plateau slopes gently to the north and there is situated the town of Shillong. Notice that Shillong is sheltered from the main force of the monsoon and so has a rainfall of only 83 inches although Cherrapunji with nearly 500 inches is only thirty miles away. The Assam Hills are more cultivated than the other

parts of the Eastern Hills Region. On the slopes down towards the Brahmaputra Valley, we find some of the numerous tea plantations for which Assam is famous. You learnt about these in the section on the Brahmaputra Valley.

In all parts the Eastern Hills Region has plenty of rain so that drought is unknown ; but many regions are spoilt by having too much. The rain falls so heavily that it washes the seeds out of the ground and sometimes washes all the plants out of the ground too.

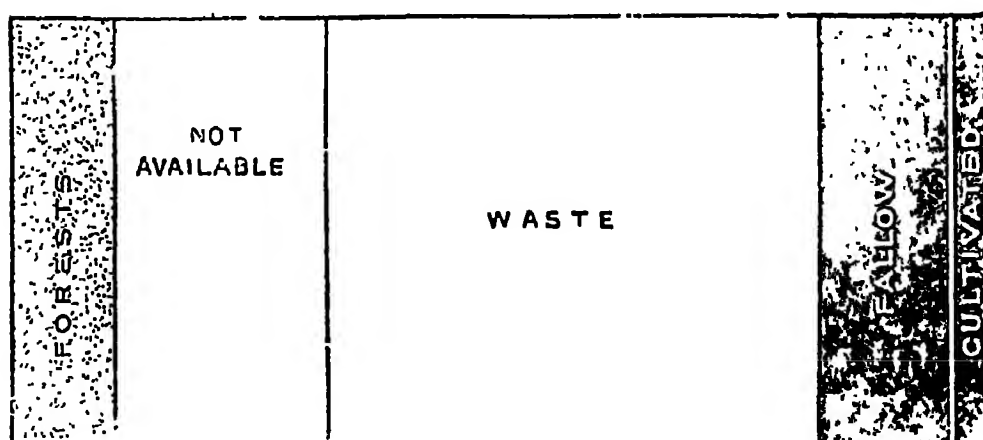


FIG. 68.—Proportion of cultivated land in the Eastern Hills Region. Cultivated land in black (4 per cent).

4. **Crops.**—Look carefully at Fig. 68 and notice what a very small proportion of the Hills Region is cultivated. A part of it is covered with valuable forest, amongst which are the sal forests found especially on the Garo Hills. But the greater part of the region is covered with forests which are too far away to be of any use ; or with waste land of bamboo, canes and grass. Although such a small proportion of the area is cultivated, nine out of every ten persons are engaged in agriculture. That will help you to realize how few people live in the Hills Region—only about thirty-seven for every square mile. Look at Fig. 52. Rice is the most important crop in this region. Some of the more advanced hill tribes make terraced fields for their rice but most of them simply burn down a piece of jungle, cultivate a few crops and then move to some other spot. Although

the climate of the hills is wet, there is a coarse kind of cotton which will grow and we find it especially in the Garo, Lushai and Chittagong Hills. Some fruit trees such as oranges can be grown and are being tried in the Garo Hills.

The Eastern Hills Region consists largely of old hard rocks but the only mineral industry of importance is quarrying limestone and making lime in the Khasi Hills.

The Eastern Hills Region is inhabited by various hill tribes who, like the hill-tribes of the Himalayas and the people of Burma, are more allied to the Chinese than to the Indians. Examples of the hill-tribes are the Nagas, Chins and Chinboks. In the Garo Hills, however, we find settlers from other parts of India, notably from Bihar, are coming and cultivating the land. Many of them have worked in the tea gardens of the Brahmaputra Valley.

5. Roads.—We must now consider the roads into the hills. There is now a railway joining the upper part of the Brahmaputra or Assam Valley and the plains of the Delta, running as far as the port of Chittagong. This railway cuts across the hills as shown in Fig. 66. It has two short branches on the south side—one to Sylhet from whence we can approach the rainy southern slopes of the Assam Hills. Shillong, the principal town of Assam, is more easily reached from the north side from the railway running along the Brahmaputra Valley. The State of Manipur is reached by the important cart road from Dimapur; perhaps one day a railway may run along the same route and continue on into Burma. Further north the Tuzu River from Burma forms a way by which the Hills Region can be approached from Burma. From the port of Chittagong several valleys run up into the Lushai Hills. Cox's Bazaar, also on the coast, is the outlet for the extreme south of the area.

Then there are the passes across the hills from Burma to India. Where there are two streams on opposite sides of a range of hills the ground is gradually worn away, until a low place in the ridge is made. We call such a place a 'pass' or 'gap'. The most important passes across the Eastern Hills Regions are shown in Fig. 8. Turn back to that now.

The passes are few, and they are closely connected with the rivers.

(a) Notice the two small rivers which form the Chindwin in the Hukong Valley, and notice also the small tributary on the west side of the Patkoi Hills flowing into the Brahmaputra. You can see that these three streams form a natural way over the Patkoi Hills. This is known as the 'Hukong Valley Route', and may be called the back door into Burma.

(b) Now, on the same map, follow the Manipur River from Kalewa into the hills. Where it turns north, notice how close it is to a small Indian stream on the other side of the hills. The Manipur River and the Indian stream form a way into Burma known as the 'Manipur Route', and may be called the side door into Burma.

(c) Notice the An River and the An Pass over the Arakan Yomas and the Sandoway River and the Taungup Pass. These may be called doors leading from Arakan into Burma.

It must be noted that where these routes leave the flat land and commence to climb into the hills, there are villages, which may be called the frontier villages between the Plains Regions and the Hills Region. There is almost a line of them dotted along the foot of the mountains, situated at the places where streams offer a fairly easy way into the hills. Examples of such villages in Burma are Saw, Gangaw, and Kalembo (see Fig. 67).

To such villages, the people of the hills come down occasionally to buy extra food, or a few luxuries. The situation of these places is good for cultivation, because the mountain torrents, rushing from the hills, enter the plains and provide plenty of water. The climate, however, is unhealthy in every case.

There is also the Tuzu Gap to the Patkoi Hills.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. The population of the Brahmaputra or Assam Valley is increasing. Why?
2. Write an account of the tea industry in North-eastern India,
3. Describe the climate of the Assam Valley.

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4. The Brahmaputra River is longer than the River Ganges, yet its valley is much less important. Why?

5. Explain by means of diagrams the reason for the following differences in Rainfall :—Cherrapunji 486", Shillong 83", Gauhati 67", Mauipur State 63".

6. Describe the natural vegetation of the Eastern Hills Regions.

7. If there were roads and railways into the Eastern Hills Region, what products might be obtained?

8. Write an account of the agriculture of the Eastern Hills Region.

9. Show by sketches how a pass may be formed.

10. Find another natural region in the world like the Eastern Hills Region.

CHAPTER XV

NEPAL

I. THE STATE

Although Nepal is a kingdom quite independent of India, we will consider it next, because it lies on the north of the Ganges Plain and in Nepal we can learn something more about the Mountain Wall which guards India on the north. The ruling race in Nepal is the Gurkhas, fine brave men who make good soldiers. Many of them volunteer for service in the British Army. For over a century there has been peace and goodwill between Nepal and India. Nepal stretches for 500 miles along the Himalayan Chain, to the north lies the Plateau of Tibet, to the south is the Ganges Plain. Nepal falls into two natural regions, the Himalayan Region and the Sub-Himalayan or Sub-Montane Region. Just to the east of Nepal lies the little State of Sikkim as well as the Darjeeling District of Bengal. We will study these at the same time.

II. THE HIMALAYAN REGION

1. **General Features.**—We are now going to learn something about the great wall of mountains which shuts off India on the north. The word 'Himalaya' means the 'abode of snow' and refers to the coat of snow which never leaves the high mountains. Unless you live somewhere near the foot of the mountains, you have probably never seen snow and it must be very difficult to picture what a great mountain covered with snow looks like. But perhaps you have been to the bioscope and seen pictures with snow there.

In order to find out what the Himalaya Mountains look like let us make a journey up to Darjeeling. You know that in March, April and May it gets very, very hot and you find it difficult to work in school. So difficult it is that most of you have holidays from school at that time. You can imagine it must be still harder for Europeans, who are used to a much colder country, to live on the plains during

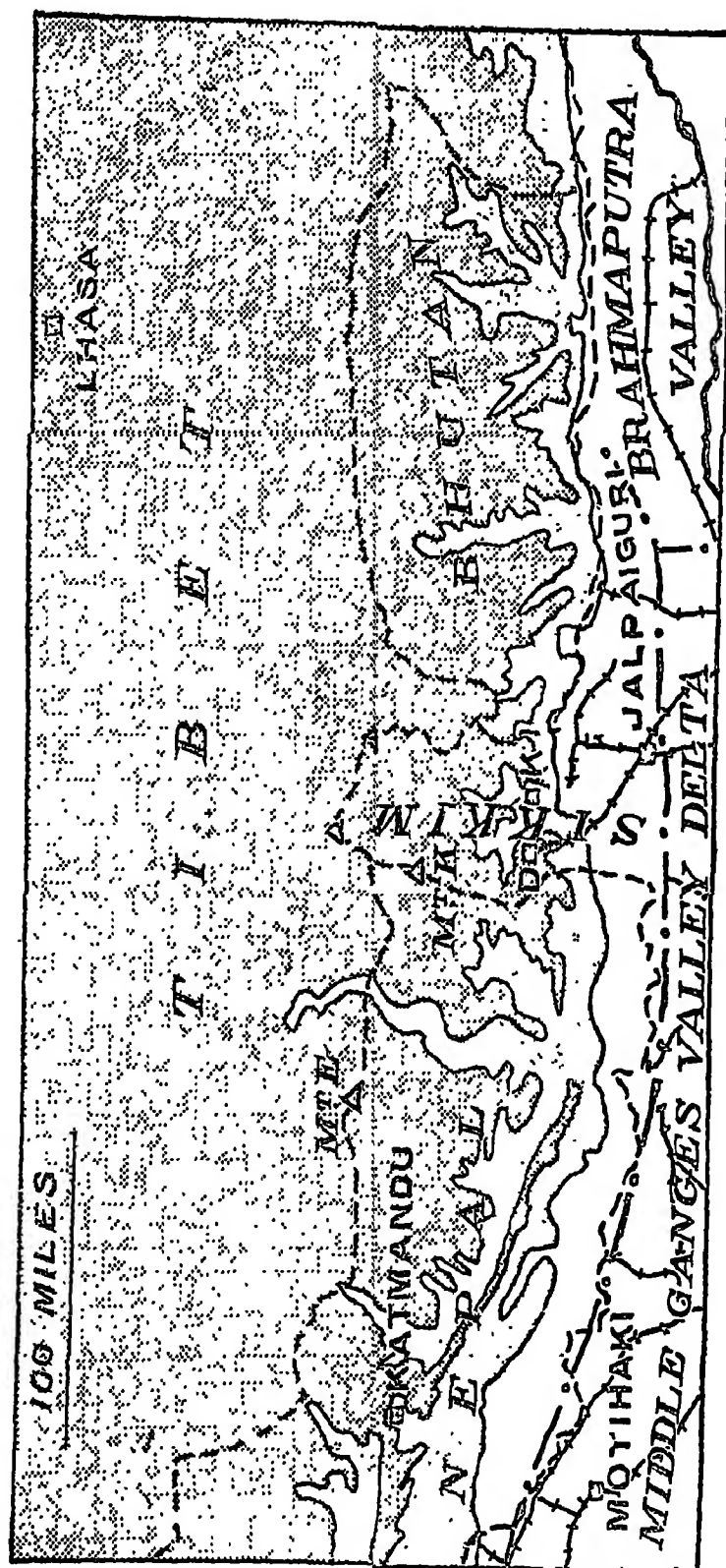


FIG. 69 —The Himalayan and Sub-Himalayan Regions, Eastern Half.
 Mt. E. = Mt. Everest; Mt. K. = Mt. Kinchinjunga; D. = Darjeeling; K. = Kalimpong.

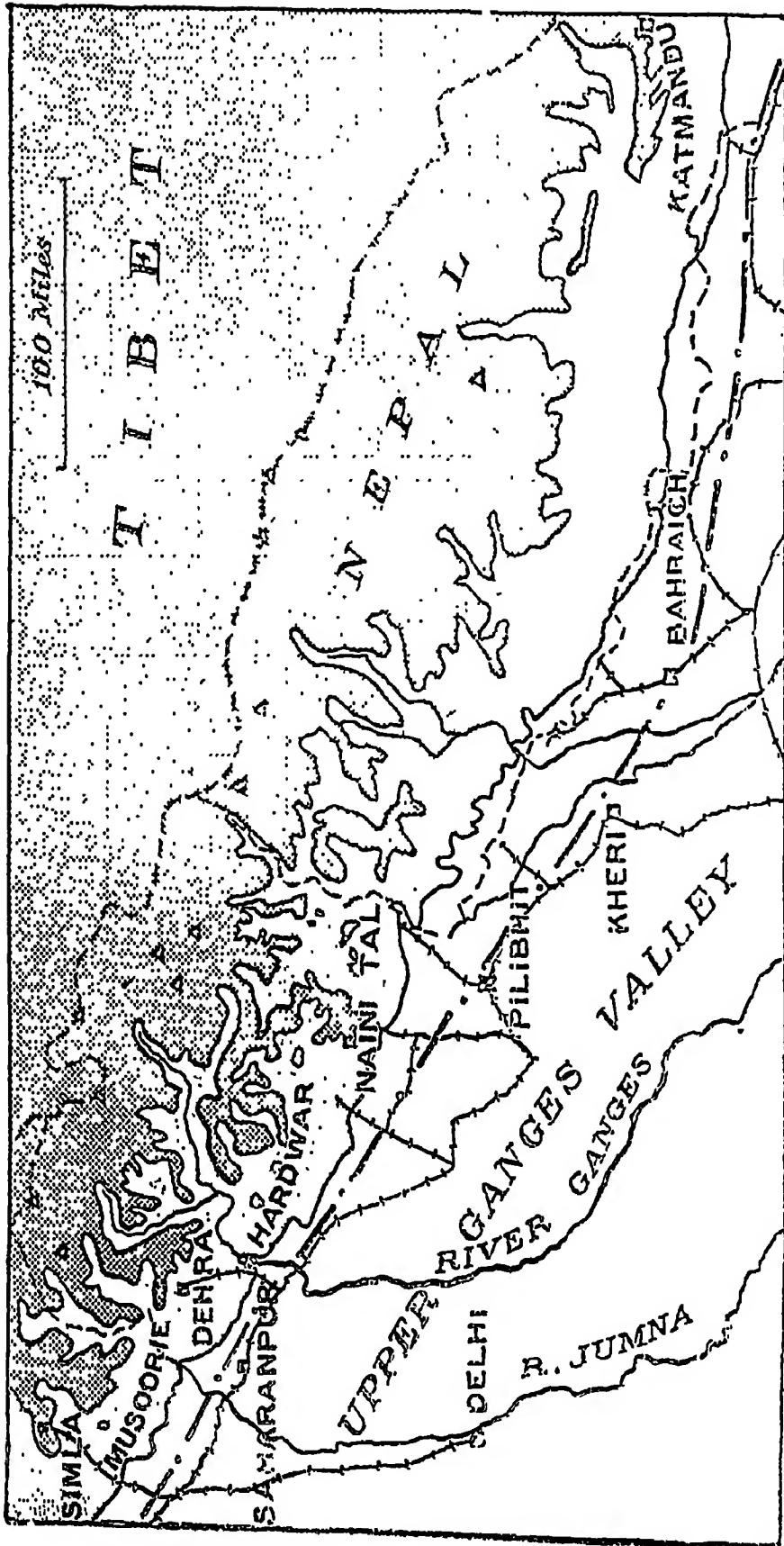


FIG. 70.—The Himalayan and Sub-Himalayan Regions, Central Part. Notice the line of towns and the railway along the borders of the Sub-Himalayan Region. Notice the line of Hill Stations on the nearest high ground (above 5,000 feet). The Himalayan Region comprises roughly the land over 5,000 feet (dark). Land between 1,000 and 5,000 feet light. All peaks marked by triangles are over 20,000 feet.

the Hot Season. And so they have built a town high up in the mountains, 7,000 feet above the plains below, where they can go and work during the Hot Weather. You have learnt in Chapter IV why it is much cooler in the hills. This town in the hills, called Darjeeling, is reached by a little mountain railway. If the railway had not been built it would take us many days to climb high hills, covered with forest, cross deep narrow valleys and climb still more hills before we could reach Darjeeling. But now the little railway takes us up the 7,000 feet in a few hours. Away from the railway, cart-tracks are very few and travelling is measured not by miles, but by the number of hours required for the journey. The little mountain railway has rails only two feet apart (we call this a 2-foot gauge) and starts from the plains, which although 300 miles from the sea, are there less than 400 feet above the level of the sea. From there the railway winds about amongst the forests of the Sub-Montane Region. After it has climbed 5,000 feet we pass out of the tropical forests and the different kinds of trees remind us that we are now in the Himalayan Region. Still we wind about amongst forest-covered hills, getting steadily higher and higher till at last we reach Darjeeling more than 7,000 feet above the level of the sea. Let us suppose we have been fortunate and arrived on a day when the air is fine and clear. Away to the north we see a wonderful vision of giant mountains covered with snow. In the far distance to the north-west we catch a glimpse of Mount Everest, the highest mountain in the world. Mount Everest, which is over 29,000 feet high, seems to be only one of a long chain of peaks stretching east and west and forming the axis or main chain of the mountain range. Nearly everywhere the height of the ridge is 18,000 or 19,000 feet. Standing apart from the chain we see Kinchinjunga, the third highest and perhaps the most magnificent mountain in the world. It looks higher than all the others because it stands by itself.

If we look to the east and to the west from Darjeeling we see a broad belt of mountains, not so high as the ones to the north, but still very big. These form the Lower or Outer Himalayas. We can thus divide the Himalayan Region (in the east) into two parts:—The main Himalayan Range and the Lower or Outer Himalayas. A third part,

the Sub-Montane Region or the Sub-Himalayan Region you learn about in a separate chapter. We shall see later that in the Western Himalayas there are four ranges.

2. The Eastern Himalayas.—Let us now take a journey from Darjeeling and learn something about the Eastern part of the Himalayan Region. This part of the Himalayas catches the full force of the South-West Monsoon and the rainfall is very heavy—more than 100 inches. If we go further west it gets rather less for the monsoon wind has to blow great distances across the land before it reaches the mountains, but everywhere it is good. At Simla, it is sixty-three inches, but gets less further west. If we stand on one of the hills near Darjeeling we can see the clouds rolling up from the sea in the Bay of Bengal. We are so high that we are above the clouds and when they strike against the mountains we find ourselves enveloped in a thick white mist and everything around us is

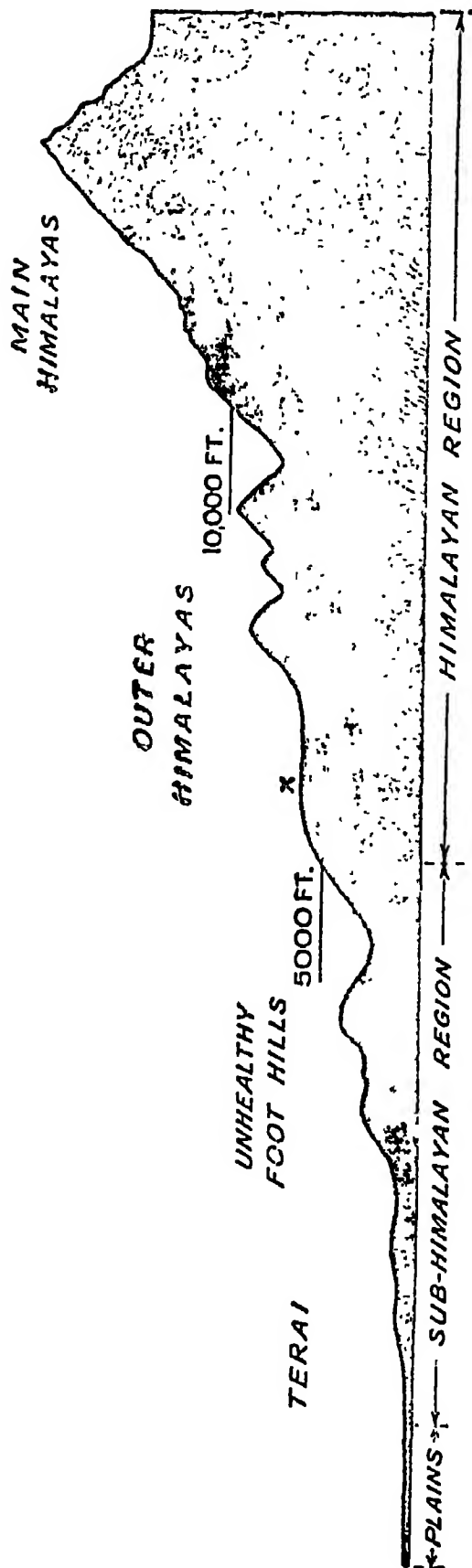


FIG. 71.—Section through the Himalayas (East).

hidden. That is what it feels like to be in a cloud and for half the year the Darjeeling hills are covered by such mists. As we go on our journey the vegetation around us is everywhere very rich. The forest consists of broad-leaved evergreen trees, of which different kinds of oak are the most important. When we climb higher and reach more than 9,000 feet above sea-level the forest becomes quite different and our path winds through beautiful and stately pine trees. Some of them are so large that two men could scarcely make their hands meet around the trunk, and these trees are as straight as a ship's mast. Their leaves are very narrow, shaped like large needles, and the ground beneath the trees is covered with brown 'pine needles' and pine cones, which give a fresh healthy scent to the air around. As we pass along, we notice that wherever the bark of the pine tree has been injured, thick resin oozes out and solidifies on the surface.

As we rise still higher we leave the pines and about 12,000 feet enter into what is called the Alpine Zone. Here the ground is covered with Rhododendrons; sometimes forming dense thickets, at other times forming trees with red twisted stems. The higher we go the poorer and smaller become the shrubs; much of the ground is covered only with tufts of mountain flowers or grass. Above us we see stretches of snow and if we are able to climb high enough we pass at 16,000 feet above sea-level into the land of everlasting snow. The 'snow-line' is the line above which the heat of the sun in the hot season is unable to melt the snow which falls in the cold season.

We have learnt from our journey that the eastern part of the Himalaya Mountains can be divided into four belts, according to the vegetation and height above sea-level:—

- | | |
|-------------------------------|---|
| (4) Snow | ... 16,000 feet to the top of the mountain. |
| (3) Alpine Belt | ... 12,000 feet to 16,000 feet. |
| (2) Coniferous Forest Belt | ... 9,000 to 12,000 feet. |
| (1) Evergreen Oak Forest Belt | ... 5,000 to 9,000 feet. |

Although the forests are dense and contain many different trees yet they are of little commercial value at present. They are too far away. It is difficult for a man to get

from the hills to the plains and, therefore almost impossible for him to haul trunks of trees to those places where they can be sold. The cost of getting at the timber, or other forest products such as resin, is so great that it does not pay to try, and so the forests are left to themselves, except where they are nearest to the plains. In the colder parts of the world such as Norway, Sweden, Russia and Canada, there are great pine forests like those on the Himalaya Mountains but growing near sea-level and so easily reached. Most of the boxes in which goods from foreign

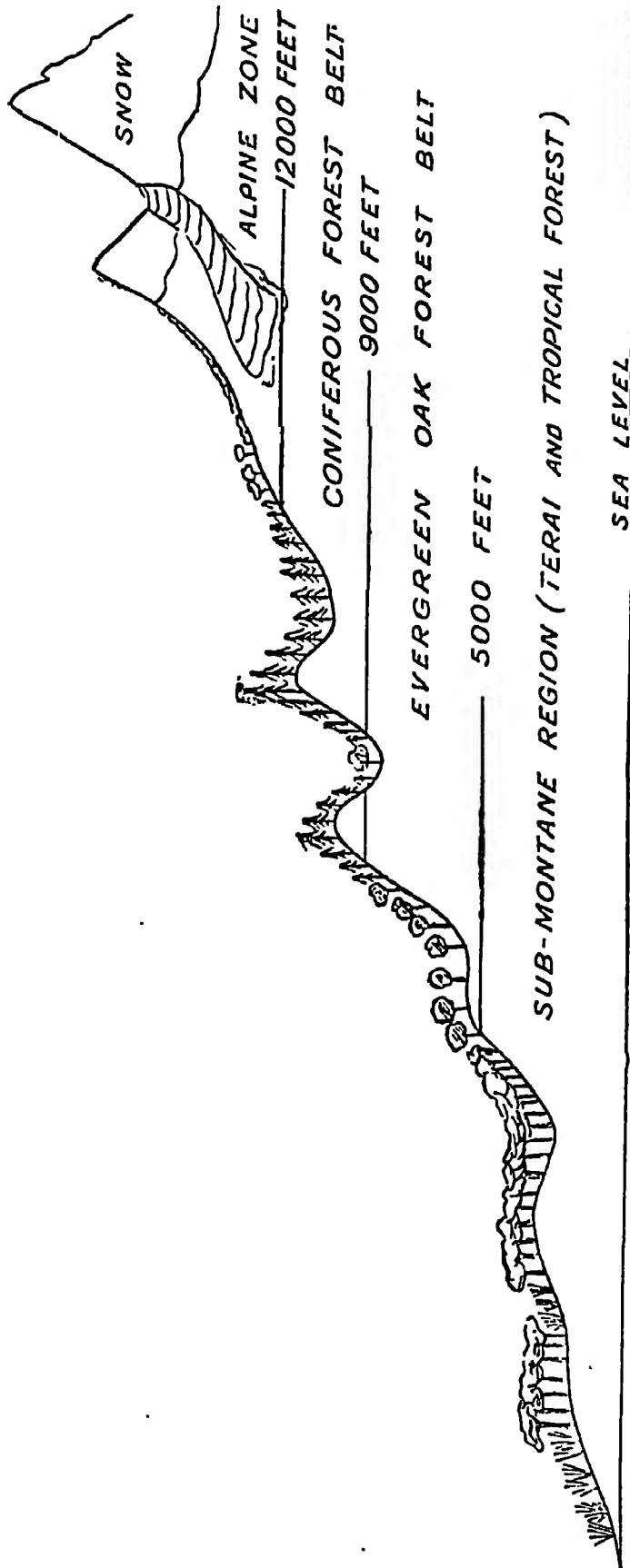


FIG. 72 — Vegetation zones of the Himalayas (East).

countries are brought to India are made from the wood of these forests.

3. **People of the eastern Himalayas.**—In our journey through the mountains we have not seen many people. In the whole natural region there are less than 100 people to the square mile, usually many less. The State of Sikkim, for example, has only thirty people to the square mile. We have, however, noticed a few villages scattered amongst the hills. The villages are not large, but consist of just a few huts and each village is surrounded by a patch of cultivation. The people burn down a small piece of jungle and the ashes make the soil rich for a short time. A few crops such as maize are grown but after a year or two the people move away and clear another patch of fresh jungle. Often they move their village too. The villagers look quite different from us. They are small but strong, have rather flat faces and make us think of Chinamen. They speak many different languages and the people in one village often speak a different language from those in the next. They can understand one another, however, because they can both use another language—Nepali. The most important hill tribes in the Himalayas are the Nepalese. The ruling race in Nepal is the Ghurkhas, small sturdy men who make very good soldiers. In the State of Sikkim, which is part of British India the Lepchas and Bhutias are important tribes. We often meet too, Tibetans and others who have travelled over the mountains from Tibet. We find that the people, although they live amongst the mountains, do not like cold and the Lepchas especially usually build their villages in the warmer valleys.

It is impossible to live in the very highest parts, even if men can stand the cold. You have learnt that the air gets thinner as we ascend and at great heights it is so thin that man cannot breathe. He has to take a big bottle of compressed air or oxygen with him. No one has ever been able to climb to the top of the highest mountains.

4. **Denudation in the Mountains.**—There are many things which we can learn in the mountains and which we cannot understand easily if we live in the plain. Let us stop for a moment and look at one of the rivers in the Himalayan Region. In the wet season it is a roaring, rushing torrent at the bottom of a deep V-shaped valley quite different

from our quiet rivers of the plains. Its floor is strewn with big stones and boulders which the stream is pushing gradually downwards, knocking them against one another and breaking off pieces and rounding the bigger ones. Gradually the stones are worn smoother and smaller. The little pieces which are broken off form sand and the smaller pieces are just like mud. When after a long journey this fine material reaches the plains it will form the alluvium which we know so well. Here in the mountains we can see the alluvium in the process of formation. Let us follow up the mountain torrent and find its source. It will take us many days of hard travelling for we shall find the stream has many waterfalls up which we must climb and the forest on either side is dense. After a long time the forest becomes thinner and we emerge into the Alpine Zone. We are now very high up and the air feels very cold. We put our hand in the water of the stream and find it as cold as ice. If we go on a little further we may find that our stream is flowing from a hole in a mass of ice. We climb up on to the ice and find that it stretches right away up into the mountains as a river of ice. Such a frozen river is called a glacier. As we stand on it it does not seem to move but if we could watch it from day to day we should find it moving gradually downhill and melting to form the river. On either side of us rise rugged mountains, partly covered with snow, but with steep slopes of bare rock. At the bottom of the steep slopes are piles of broken rocks, rough pieces of all shapes and sizes. Piles of rock at the bottom of steep slopes like this are called 'screes'. How do they get there? Well, water gets into the cracks of the rocks of the mountains and during the cold night freezes. Water when it freezes expands or grows larger and so the crack in the rock is made bigger. When the water melts or thaws again a big piece of rock will fall off and down into the valley. So we see the high mountains are gradually cut away by the action of 'frost' freezing the water in the cracks. Some of the pieces may fall on to the glacier and be gradually carried down into the river valleys.

5. **Rivers of the Eastern Himalayas.**—In the east only one of the rivers has succeeded in cutting through the great Mountain Wall. The River Brahmaputra has a long course in Tibet, and then turns south and cuts right through the

Mountain Wall. Another river has nearly cut through and actually rises to the north of Mount Everest. One of the most important passes is reached from Darjeeling and leads to the city of Lhasa, the capital of Tibet. At the eastern end of the Himalayas there are passes into China.

6. **Political Divisions.**—Natural Regions do not take any notice of political boundaries and we find that only a part of the region we are now studying is in British India. The western part occupies a large part of Kashmir. Further east are the State of Chamba, the district of Kampa and the Simla Hills State, (Punjab) then eastward is the little State of Garhwal and parts of the district of Dehra Dun with the Hill station of Mussoorie (all coming under the United Provinces). Going eastwards the Himalayan Region lies in the State of Nepal, till we reach the district of Darjeeling and the State of Sikkim which projects northwards from Bengal. Further east the region forms part of Bhutan, and the eastern end lies in Tibet.

7. **Towns.**—There are few industries in this region. Darjeeling as well as being an important hill station is also the centre of numerous tea gardens. There tea is grown on the hill slopes. Further east is Kalimpong, through which town wool is imported from Tibet. Nepal is not part of India; its capital is Katmandu. The hill station of Simla, the 'summer capital of India' is situated on the outer Himalayas.

III. THE SUB-MONTANE OR SUB-HIMALAYAN REGION

1. **General Features.**—Between the broad cultivated plains of the Punjab, the Ganges Valley or Brahmaputra Valley and the Mountain Region of the Himalayas there is a belt of country which is very different from either. In some places it is flat or gently waving land only slightly above the level of the plains, but at other places it includes separate ranges of hills—the foot hills of the Himalayas. Such ranges of hills are the Siwalik Hills in the northern part of the United Provinces, the Churia Ghati Hills in the southern part of Nepal, the Dun Hills in Northern Bihar, and the Sinchula Hills in Northern Bengal, as well as the lower slopes of the outer Himalayas themselves in the west. The Sub-Himalayan Regions sometimes suffer severely from earthquakes.

The Sub-Montane belt is bounded on the south by the cultivated plains of the Ganges or Brahmaputra Valleys; on the north it extends to a height of 5,000 feet in the Himalayas where it passes into the Himalayan Region. In the section on the Himalayan Region you learnt that the swift mountain streams there are busily breaking up the rocks into small piece—pebbles and sand. Often the descent to the low ground is sharp and there the streams spread out and deposit a 'fan' of gravel and sand. Much of the Sub-Montane Region consists of sand deposited in this way.

2. The Western Part of the Sub-Himalayan Region.—Very often we can divide the eastern part of the Region into two distinct strips. The part nearest the flat plains of the Ganges is only slightly raised above their level. This strip is often covered with coarse, tall grasses and is known as the 'Terai'. Near the Himalayan range we come on to a belt of hills, usually covered with forest, damp and unhealthy. These hills do not as a rule exceed 4,000 feet; behind them rise the healthy hills belonging to the Himalayan Region. It is interesting to note how man has been controlled by physical geography in building his towns. On the borders of the Terai and the Ganges Plains we find a long line of towns—Saharanpur, Pilibhit, Kheri, Bahraich, Motihari, Jalpaiguri, etc. Find these on

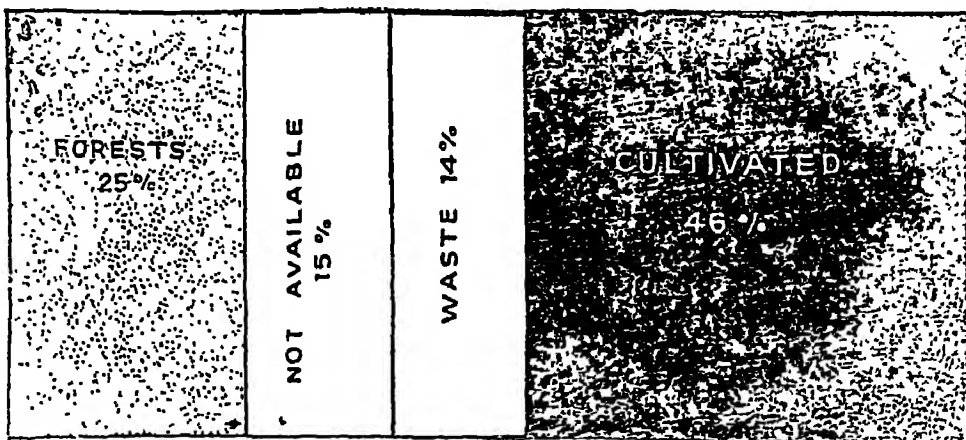


FIG. 73.—Proportion of cultivated land in the wetter eastern part of the Sub-Montane Region (Jalpaiguri and Darjeeling).

the map. For considerable distances a railway runs along the line between the two natural regions. These towns mark the northern limit of the fertile Ganges Plains but

from there cultivation is now being gradually extended into the Terai. On the other side of the Sub-Montane Region we find a line of hill stations. The hills of the Sub-Montane Region are unhealthy, so we find the hill stations are built on the first line of hills belonging to the Himalayan Region. Examples are Simla, Mussoorie, Naini Tal and Darjeeling. Study Fig. 71 carefully. It shows you a section drawn from the plains, through the Sub-Montane Region into the Himalayas.

The Sub-Montane Region occupies considerable areas in the United Provinces ; along the southern part of Nepal and along the borders of Nepal and Bihar and Orissa ; in Northern Bengal and the borders of Bhutan where the ' Terai ' country is known as the ' Duars '. The rainfall varies from 40 or more inches in the west to well over 100 in the east, but there are marked local variations, some valleys being almost dry, whilst some hill ranges have a very heavy fall.

3. **Vegetation of the Eastern Part.**—The eastern part of the region is wetter than the western and the characteristic vegetation of the more hilly parts is a Monsoon Forest of the valuable sal trees. This forest stretches from the border of the Punjab to the east but over large areas it is interrupted by tracts of coarse grass such as occur on the Terai. The Terai is covered with coarse grass or coarse grass with scattered trees. Grassland with scattered trees is called Savanna.

In the west there are numerous patches of dry thorny forest, in the wetter east there are patches of very damp evergreen forest. In the wet east it is found that the dry sal forest occurs on the ridges, rich wet tropical evergreen forest in the valleys.

4. **People and towns of the Eastern Part.**—The eastern part of the region is very unhealthy and the inhabitants suffer greatly from fever. So we find the region is thinly populated, the chief inhabitants are forest tribes who live and make their scattered clearings in forest and grass land. Gradually, however, man is draining the damp unhealthy places and conquering the diseases. In the United Provinces much of the Terai is now cultivated and thickly populated ; in Northern Bengal are rich tea gardens. The sal forests are both important and valuable. There are

very few towns in this area. Buxa guards the approaches to Bhutan and Dehra Dun at the western end is one of the head-quarters of the Forest Department in India and the site of the Forest School is here. A famous and sacred place is Hardwar, where the River Ganges leaves the mountains. Cultivation is being pushed into this region from the line of towns on the borders of the plains and parts of it are now being extensively used. We find that in the north-western part of the United Provinces there are but few people—150 to the square mile. But further east cultivation has been pushed much further into the Terai, and the population rises to 500 per square mile. In Northern Bengal it is about 300 (Jalpaiguri). What can we learn, too, about the amount of cultivated land? We find that most of the 'districts' made by Government cover part of the Sub-Montane Region and part of the Plains Region and so it is difficult to separate the two in Government Reports. If we take two districts in the United Provinces which are almost entirely in the Sub-Montane Region and which may be regarded as typical, we notice the large area of forest, a moderate proportion of waste land and a moderate to good proportion of cultivated land.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Describe the natural vegetation of the Himalayan Region.
2. Describe the climate of Darjeeling or Simla.
3. Write an account of the people of the Himalayan Region.
4. How are rocks worn away in mountain regions?
5. Find another natural region in the world like the Himalayan Region.
6. Compare the Sub-Himalayan Region with the regions which lie on either side.

CHAPTER XVI

✓ KASHMIR

I. THE STATE

Kashmir is a large native state, situated amongst the mountains of North-western India. It is ruled by the Maharaja of Kashmir and Jammu, whose capital is at Srinagar.

The greater part of Kashmir lies in the Himalayan Region, but the Himalayas are somewhat different here from what they are in Nepal. The north-eastern corner of the State lies on the Tibetan Plateau, whilst the south forms part of the Sub-Himalayan Region.

II. THE HIMALAYAN REGION

1. **Physical Features.**—In the east, that is in Nepal or Sikkim, the Himalayan Range is comparatively narrow. But towards the west, in Kashmir, it is much broader and four great parallel ranges of mountains can be distinguished:—

The Muztagh-Karakoram Range.

The Inner Himalayas or Zaskar Range.

The Middle Himalayas or Pangi Range.

The Outer Himalayas or Pir Panjal Range.

The Muztagh-Karakoram Range is the highest of all, and there are many great peaks more than 25,000 feet, of which K2 or Mount Godwin Austen is the highest, and probably the second highest mountain in the world. This great chain of mountains completely shuts off the bleak Tibetan Plateau beyond. One difficult gateway or pass—the Karakoram Pass—crosses the range and is the road from Leh to Tibet.

The Inner Himalayas also form a great wall, with many peaks more than 20,000 feet high.

The Middle Himalayas are not quite so high, but many peaks are more than 15,000 feet high.

The Outer Himalayas have an average height of 10,000 to 12,000 feet. Though the peaks are not much more than

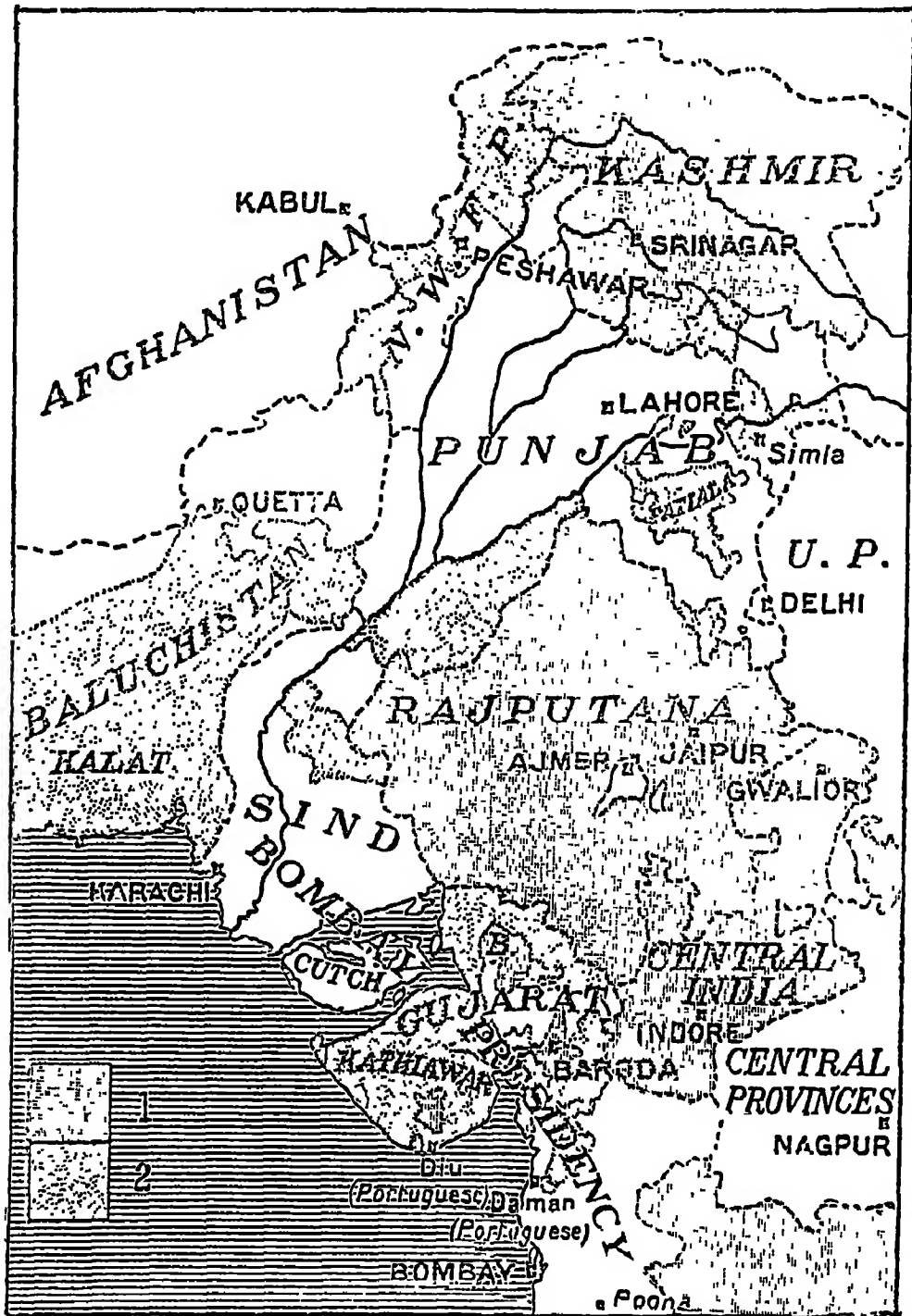


FIG. 74.—Political map of North-Western India.

half the height of Mount K2 it is this range, with its snowy crest, which the dwellers in the plains can see.

The Indus River rises in the Tibetan Plateau and for a long distance flows between the great Karakoram Range and the Inner Himalayas. The monsoon is not felt on the Tibetan Plateau ; in reality it is the Inner Himalayas which prevent it being felt and so the Upper Indus Valley, around the town of Leh, is very dry. After the town of Skardu,

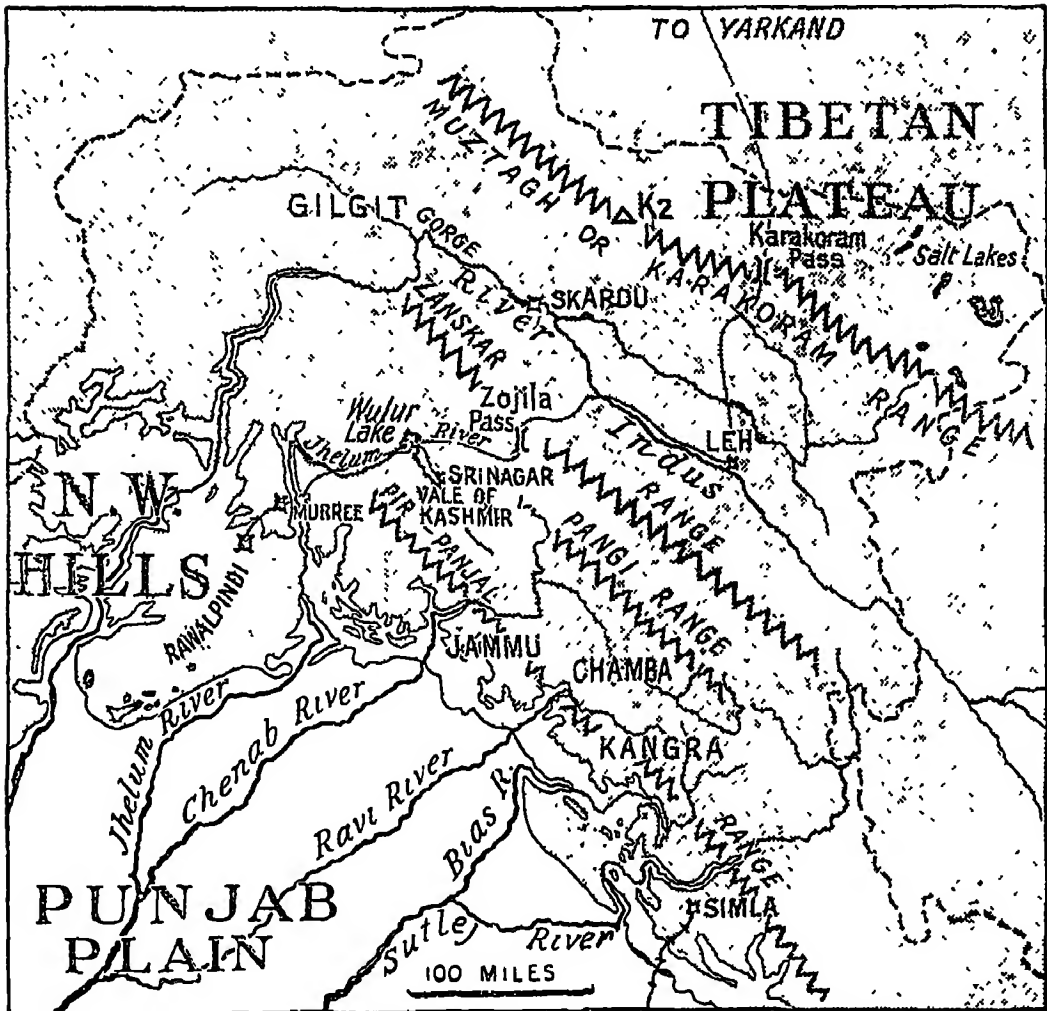


FIG. 75.—The Himalayan Region (West).

the Indus passes through a tremendous gorge, is joined by the Gilgit and then turns southward, then west again and finally south till it cuts its way through the mountains to the plains. Between the Middle and Outer Himalayas is a valley different from most of the mountain valleys. It is broader and has a lake (Wular Lake). This valley is the Vale of Kashmir and is one of the most beautiful valleys in the world. The river draining it is the Jhelum on which is

situated Srinagar, the principal town of Kashmir. The rivers of the Punjab Plains—the Chenab, Ravi, Bias and Sutlej have cut through the Outer Himalayas and sometimes the Middle, but only the Sutlej cuts right through and rises in Tibet.

Note carefully on the map the few and difficult passes through the mountains—one from Srinagar across the Zojila Pass to Leh and then to Yarkand in Tibet. Another pass is the Shipki pass.

2. Western Himalayas (Forests).—In the west the climate is drier, and has a greater range of temperature. The forests here clothe usually the northern sides of the mountains, where they have more shade so that the snow lies longer and the moisture is not dried up by the sun. The southern side is often a bare, stony slope or covered with short grass and bushes. Fig. 77 is a section showing the vegetation zones in the western Himalayas. The scrub of the plains begins to change in the Sub-Himalayan region at a height of 3,000 feet. At 5,000 feet we enter the Himalayan Region and from 5,000 to 10,000 or 12,000 feet is found the temperate mountain forest. It is a little difficult to separate this forest into two zones as we did in

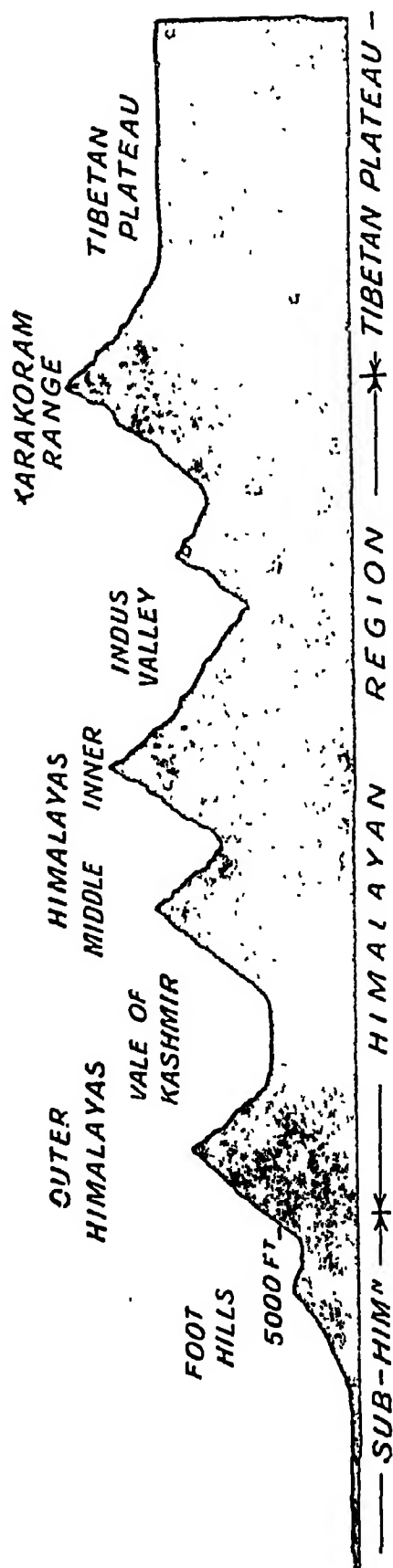


FIG. 76.—Section through the Himalayas of Kashmir.

the Eastern Himalayas. It consists of a mixture of the broad leaved oaks and the narrow leaved pines and deodars. The latter is a fine tree and yields valuable wood. Above the forest comes the Alpine zone and then snow. The forests of Kashmir are more easily reached than those of the eastern Himalayas, and the logs of deodar and blue pine are floated down to the saw mills in the plains.

3. *People of the Western Himalayas.*—Again there are few people in this region. Their crops usually have to be grown in tiny fields on the hill sides. Below 8,000 feet the most important crop is maize, but wheat can also be grown up to this level. Buckwheat is grown on the poorer, stony soils. Rice is grown in tiny fields at the bottom of valleys. The rice fields are carefully levelled and water is brought to them in little canals. The Kashmiris are the principal people, and they live in the more sheltered valleys. In the wilder parts, such as the Indus Valley, the only inhabitants are a few wandering shepherds. The hill states in the northern part of the Punjab are all similar to Kashmir in general features.

4. *The Vale of Kashmir.*—The beautiful Vale of Kashmir deserves a special description. The hillsides, for example at Gulmarg, owe their beauty largely to the rich growth of mountain flowers. The more accessible hill slopes are covered with terraced fields and the vale is famous for its fine fruits—apples, pears, oranges, etc. Through the vale wanders the Jhelum River, here broad and navigable and unlike most Himalayan rivers. So valuable for crops is the land near the river that the people try to make more by building rafts and sprinkling a little earth on them and then planting seeds on the 'floating island'. Sometimes one man can steal and take away another man's land. Srinagar is famous for its wood carving industry, local wood being used. The State of Kashmir derives a considerable revenue from the sale of the bark of the Kut tree, which is used in medicine. Other towns—very small ones—in the region are Leh and Skardu in the Indus Valley.

III. THE WESTERN PART OF THE SUB-HIMALAYAN REGION

The western part of the region is much drier than the eastern but again can usually be divided into two strips.

The outer and lower strip including the slopes of the mountains up to 3,000 feet is usually covered with a poor monsoon forest or scrubland. The most interesting tree in the forest is *Butea*, known by various names such as chichra, dhak, and palah. Probably much of the Sub-Montane Region was once dhak forest. It makes good firewood, gives a useful gum and dye can be made from the beautiful red flowers, whilst cattle eat the dried leaves. But the dry forests of this strip are most valued for their yield of bamboo. The other strip extends from 3,000 to 5,000 feet above sea-level and the chir pine is very common. From the resin of this tree turpentine can be obtained.

The western part of the Sub-Himalayan Region is not so unhealthy as the wetter eastern parts.

The region has a rainfall of 30 to 40 inches and so dry crops can be grown without irrigation. Wheat and maize are the most important, but gram and millet are also grown and, in addition, much fodder. The useless scrub forests are gradually being cut down and cultivation extended.

The great irrigation canals of the Punjab Plains take their water from the great rivers just where the rivers leave the

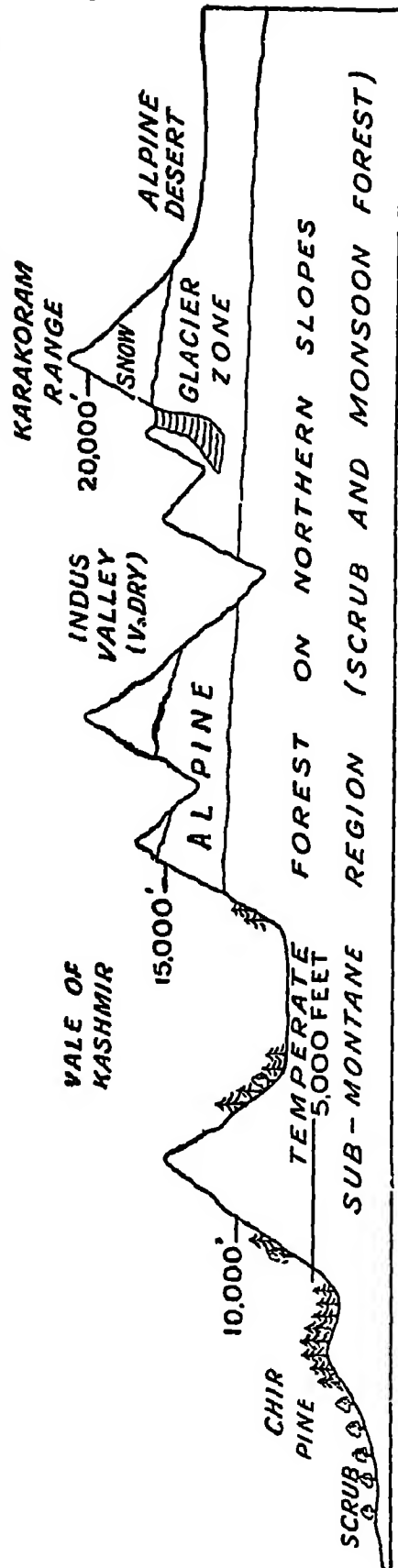


FIG. 77.—Vegetation zones of the Himalayas (West).

hills. Along the borders of the Sub-Himalayan Region there is a line of great irrigation works. As in the eastern part of the region, there are also a number of trading centres, where people come down from the hills and buy or exchange goods with dwellers on the plains.

IV. THE TIBETAN PLATEAU

1. *General Features.*—If we could continue our journey across the Himalayan Region in Kashmir and climb over the high pass of Karakoram (18,000 feet) across the Karakoram Mountains we should find a very great change of scenery. We leave behind us the mountain forests, and little cultivated patches. Instead we find a barren, bleak upland with scarcely any vegetation; a dry sandy waste with salt lakes scattered over its surface. Here and there are ridges of bare stone, crumbling under the destructive action of frost. The total rainfall, including snow, of this barren land is only about 3 inches a year, but enough to keep much of it covered with snow for many months of the year.

2. *Population, etc.*—Only a small part of this great region lies within the borders of India—in the north-east of Kashmir. This part is almost uninhabited, there are a few wandering traders who pass from Yarkand in Tibet to Leh and Srinagar in Kashmir in the warmer months. This area is part of the highest plateau in the world, 'The Roof of the World'. Cold and barren as this land is in the winter, it is almost worse in the summer, for the air is so thin that the sun shines down and makes the rocks too hot to touch, whereas it may be freezing in the shade. The days are hot, but at night it gets very very cold.

Not only is the region outside the monsoon area of India, but even the rivers flow away from India towards the heart of Asia. It is a region of 'inland drainage'.

The few people who can exist in this region are Mongols, more like a Chinaman than an Indian to look at, and by religion they are Buddhists. They obtain salt and another mineral, borax, from the shores of the salt lakes and in the early summer often bring the salt and borax to exchange for Indian goods in the Punjab bazaars. Often they use sheep as beasts of burden and tie the little bags of salt on the backs of the sheep. One important beast of

burden in this region is the Yak, an animal rather like a bullock with a large hump and long hair.

In the section on the Himalayan Region the Indus Valley in Ladakh, around Leh, was included. Remember that it is a very dry valley and half way in character between the forested Himalayas and the barren Plateau of Tibet.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Describe the natural vegetation of the Himalayan Region.
2. Describe the climate of Simla.
3. Draw a sketch-map showing the main mountain ranges and river valleys of the Himalayas.
4. How are rocks worn away in mountain regions ?
5. Write an account of the people of the Himalayan Region.
6. Compare the Sub-Montane Region with the regions which occur on either side.

CHAPTER XVII

✓ THE NORTH-WEST FRONTIER PROVINCE

I. THE PROVINCE

The North-West Frontier Province is one of the smaller provinces of India and lies mainly between the Punjab and the Afghan frontier, on the western side of the Indus. It consists of three British Districts and a large tract of 'tribal territory' lying between them and the frontier. The tribal territory is inhabited by wild hill tribes and the people are left to themselves unless they become restless and attempt to raid the people of the plain. Nearly the whole of the province is part of a single natural region which may be called the North-Western Dry Hills Region. Some of the adjoining districts of the Punjab belong to the same natural region.

II. THE DRY HILLS OF THE NORTH-WEST¹

1. *General Features.*—In the north of India there is a dry hilly region divided into two parts by the River Indus. To the east of the river lies the Salt Range and the dry, sandy plateau of Attock which forms part of the Punjab; to the west of the river are the hills and mountains of the North-West Frontier Province interrupted by broad fertile valleys such as that of Peshawar.

The Cis-Indus Tract (Punjab), or part of the region on the east side of the River Indus, consists of a dry, sandy plateau bounded on the south by the Salt Range; lower slopes of the outer Himalayas bound this area on the north.

The Indus Valley is a fine tract but the harvests vary greatly with the extent of the floods from the river.

The tract between the Indus and the hills of the frontier consists of a series of three plains—Peshawar, Bannu and

¹ This natural region comprises nearly the whole of the North-West Frontier Province except the northern part; the districts of Jhelum, Rawalpindi and Attock in the Punjab.

Dera Ismail Khan—divided from one another by the low hills of Kohat and offshoots of the frontier range. The Vale of Peshawar is highly irrigated and well wooded, presenting in spring and autumn a picture of waving cornland and smiling orchards framed by rugged hills. Adjoining Peshawar is the district of Kohat, a rough hilly tract intersected by narrow valleys. The southern spurs of the Kohat hills fade away into the Bannu plain. Where it is

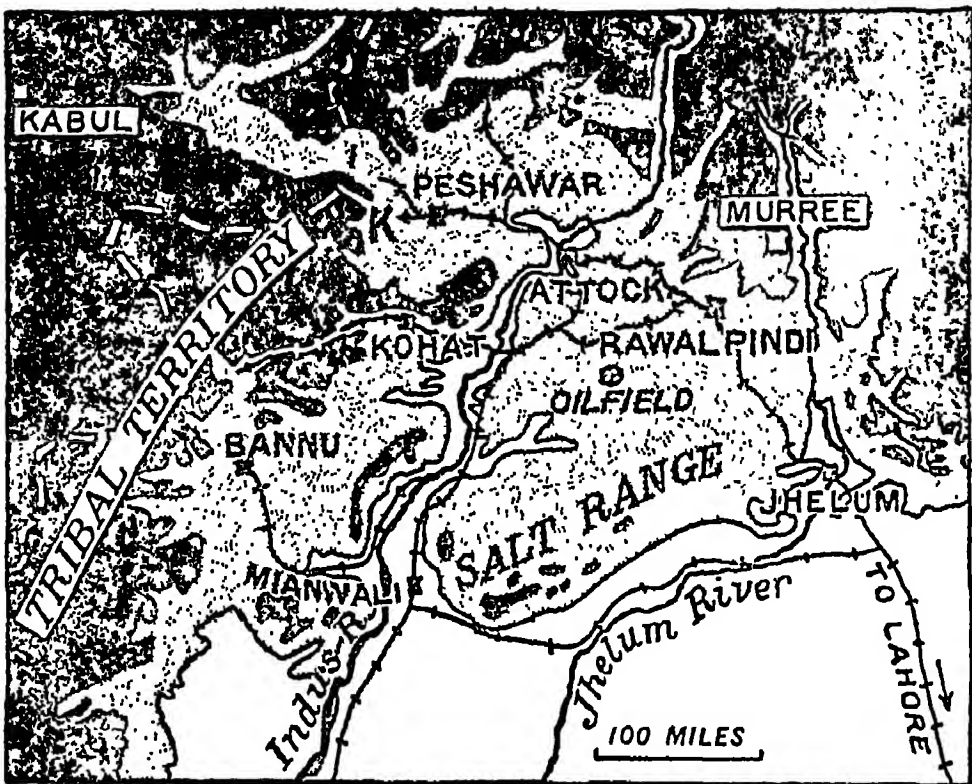


FIG. 78.—The Dry Hills Region of the North-West.

irrigated from the Kurram River the Bannu Plain is very fertile, especially round Bannu itself. Where not irrigated there are broad stretches of rough stony ground broken up by deep gullies cut by flood water from the hills. Nearer the Indus River the plain is more fertile again but its crops depend on the rainfall which varies very much from year to year. A broken range, of sandstone hills divides the Bannu Plain from the Daman or plain land of Dera Ismail Khan. This plain is a clay desert but the soil is fertile and in good rainfall years there is an abundant crop of grass. In these plains of Peshawar, Bannu and Dera Ismail Khan the summers are very hot and the winters very cold—frost

occurs nearly every year. The plain land where fertile is densely populated.

To the west of these three plains lie the barren, treeless hills inhabited by the wild tribes of the frontier—Waziris, Afridis and Orakzais. Here and there are fertile valleys, such as the upper part of the Kurram Valley. In such valleys are little hamlets and sometimes forests of stately pine trees. Some of the hillsides in the valleys are clothed with grass and the people of Kohat keep large numbers of sheep. These inhospitable hills of the frontier are almost outside the influence of the monsoons and most of the scanty rain falls in the cold season. In the cold season it is temperate. All the hill tribes belong to the group of people known as the Pathans.

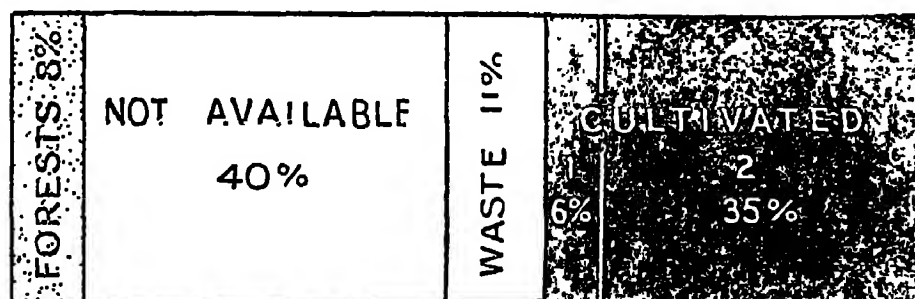


FIG. 79.—Cultivated land in the Dry Hills Region.

2. . **Crops.**—Turning now to the agriculture of the region, notice first Fig. 79. This diagram does not include the hills and mountains of the tribal tracts, but simply the districts of Jhelum, Rawalpindi, Attock, Peshawar, Kohat and Bannu. Forests cover 8 per cent, but many of these forests are merely scrubland, valuable because even the poorest timber has a value in such dry country. Nearly half is occupied by hills, mountains, and useless ground and the proportion of waste land which might be used is only small. Most of the waste land is found in the plain of Dera Ismail Khan which is not yet irrigated. The cultivated land comprises both irrigated land and land with dry crops. The most important irrigated areas are in the Vale of Peshawar, watered by the Government Canals known as the Upper Swat Canal, Lower Swat Canal and Kabul River Canal. Many of the crops of the Bannu and Dera Ismail Khan plains are also irrigated, but on the sandy plateau of

Jhelum and Attock dry crops are mainly grown. Fig. 80 shows the crops of the Natural region. Wheat is the most important. Seen in the spring after a few showers of rain, the irrigated plains of Bannu or Peshawar present to the eye a vast waving sea of wheat, with here and there streaks or patches of darker coloured gram. After the harvest the same areas have been described as 'a bleak howling

W H E A T 44 %	BARLEY 7%	MILLET 18%	MAIZE 7%	OTHER FOODS 12%	ZOO TECH NIO	COT TON	FODDER
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FIG. 80.—Crops of the Dry Hills of the North-West.

wilderness, fit home for the whistling heat-laden dust storm which often sweeps across its surface.' Millet, the second most important crop, is mainly a dry crop and is the staple product of the Cis-Indus tract. As in other parts of North-Western India, there are two harvests in this region, the Rabi and Kharif.

3. **Communications.**—One of the great railway highways of India—from Calcutta to Delhi and Peshawar—runs right across the northern part of this area. Crossing the Jhelum River at Jhelum it runs across the plateau to Rawalpindi, crosses the Indus where that river runs through a narrow gorge near Attock and up the Vale of Peshawar to Peshawar. Above Peshawar lies the famous Khyber Pass, the gate to Afghanistan. A narrow gorge surrounded by high hills from which the wild Afghan tribesmen were wont to fire upon the helpless traveller, the Khyber Pass has had a great importance in Indian history. Some years ago a military road was constructed through the pass, protected by troops. In 1925 all is changed and a wonderful mountain railway threads its way through the narrow pass. Notice also the railway running along the east bank of the Indus, from which there are branches into the valleys of Kohat and the Kurram Valley and into the Bannu Plain. The map, Fig. 78 shows these railways and also how the railway through Kohat

runs right to the frontier, and towards the east connects directly with Peshawar. Railways such as this, running to the frontier, are called 'strategic' railways. They are built mainly for military reasons. In case of trouble on the frontier soldiers and supplies can quickly be sent from the plains to the frontier stations. In times past the wild tribes of the hills used to descend to the plains and there rob and kill the peaceful people in their villages. Now the frontier is carefully guarded and the people are protected from danger.

4. **Towns.**—*Peshawar* is the most important town of the North-West Frontier Province. It is the centre of the rich, irrigated plain and the head-quarters of local Government. It controls the Khyber Pass, and nearly all the trade through the pass to Afghanistan comes through Peshawar. Peshawar is at one end of the route; at the other end is Kabul, the capital of Afghanistan.

Kohat, *Bannu* and *Dera Ismail Khan* are the natural centres of their respective plains and are all military as well as trade centres.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Compare and contrast this region with the Punjab Plains (Chapter XIX).
2. How are the railways of the North-Western Hills limited by physical features?
3. Give an account of the Vale of Peshawar.
4. Write an account of the climate of the North-West Frontier Province.

CHAPTER XVIII

BALUCHISTAN

1. **General Features.**—Baluchistan lies outside the Mountain Wall of India and outside the influence of the monsoon. It is a very dry plateau, and large parts are almost rainless. It comprises several British Districts (the most fertile parts), the large native state of Kalat and a number of smaller states. The whole of Baluchistan forms one natural region. This region is like the Tibetan Plateau in many ways. It is also a dry, barren region and is cut off from the rest of India by a range of mountains—the Sulaiman Range. But the Plateau of Baluchistan is not nearly so high as the Plateau of Tibet; its average height is only from 1,000 to 3,000 feet above sea-level instead of over 12,000. So it is not nearly so cold.

There is another way in which Baluchistan resembles Tibet. Look again at Fig. 32. The Monsoon, which is so important to us living in other parts of India, is not felt in Baluchistan. The wind cannot cross the Sulaiman Mountains.

Baluchistan is not a flat topped table-land, but a table-land with a very rugged surface. It is best described as a wild, mountainous country with many deserts. The rainfall is very small and does not, on an average, exceed eight inches in the year. There are no large rivers which can be used for irrigation as there are in the Punjab but only short rushing torrents which flow after rain but are often dry for many months of the year. The rain falls mainly during storms in the cold season. Just like the dry regions of the Punjab, Baluchistan is very hot in the Hot Season and very cold in the Cold Season (see Figs. 18 and 19). So cold is it in the Cold Season that snow falls instead of rain in the higher parts.

One more curious thing about Baluchistan we must notice. Except near the coast, the rivers do not flow to the sea like nearly all the rivers of India, but they flow into shallow lakes

in the midst of the Plateau. The lakes themselves often dry up entirely in the Hot Weather.

2. People.—With the lack of water and the great extremes of heat and cold and the difficulty of growing sufficient crops for food you will see that Baluchistan is not a pleasant



FIG: 81.—Baluchistan.

country in which to live. Although Baluchistan is nearly as large as the whole of the Punjab, there are fewer people living there than in the city of Bombay. The whole population is only 800,000. If we could spread these people

out equally all over the country there would only be six people to every square mile—far less than in any other part of India. In the Punjab there are nearly 200 people to every square mile and in the Ganges Delta there are 600. The people are nearly all *nomads*, that is, people who have no fixed home, but are always on the move. There are three principal races—the Brahuis, Balochi (or Biluchi) and Pathans—speaking different languages. The Brahuis hate the scorching heat and in the hot weather go into the mountains, driving before them their thousands of sheep and goats, their horses, cattle and camels. In the cold weather they come back to the flat alluvial plains to find pasture for their flocks and herds there. In bad seasons, and often for every winter, many Brahui families march to Sind, returning in the spring. In Baluchistan there are two main reasons why the people are nomads or wanderers. One is the great extremes of heat and cold. The other is the lack of land which can be cultivated or irrigated to furnish food for man and beast and so the people have to wander from place to place finding pasture. In summer they lived in 'jhuggi' or shelters made of branches, or in 'kizhdi', tents made of goat's hair matting or of blankets. In winter they may live in the mud huts of the villages. These huts have walls of straw and mud, with rafters of wood (if possible) and covered with matting of dried palm leaves or tamarisk. It is only in the towns that we find buildings made of mud bricks dried in the sun.

3. *Irrigation*.—We have said that there are no large rivers which can be used for irrigation. But the soil in the valleys is often very fertile and so the people try very hard to bring water to it. The water from the snowfall on the mountains sinks into the ground at the foot of the hills and the people dig long tunnels called 'karez' to get this underground water. Karez are common in Persia, but we do not find them in other parts of India. Land irrigated in this way is only found in a few parts of Baluchistan, but especially near Quetta, in the district of Quetta-Pishin. Here the people are Pathans. A few of the level tracts of alluvium in Baluchistan are irrigated by flood water from the streams. In good seasons, as many as three crops may be grown on the same piece of land. This is done by the Jatts, who live in the district of Kachhi.

The most important crop is *jowar* (millet). Another crop is wheat, and fodder is grown for the cattle and sheep.

Along the sea coast, in Makran, there are a few fishermen but further inland dates provide food for man and beast for most of the year.

Although there are so few people in Baluchistan they do not all speak the same language. The most important languages are Balochi, Pashto, and Dehwari; all of them are Iranian languages and quite different from our Indian languages. Another language, Jatki, is growing in importance.

The people of Baluchistan are mainly Mohammedans. There are more men than women and so it sometimes happens that a woman has more than one husband. The population is not increasing and large numbers of the children die.

There are really no towns in Baluchistan. Quetta and Sibi are both of British origin. Notice very carefully the position of Quetta at the head of the Bolan Pass. The Bolan Pass is by far the easiest route between Baluchistan and India. There is another route along the coast.

Across the deserts of Baluchistan there are numbers of old camel caravan routes. One of the most important of these routes, running along the north of the country and far into Persia, has now been replaced by a railway, finished in 1919. Note its position on the map.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Compare and contrast the Baluchistan Plateau with the Punjab Plains (Chapter XIX).
2. Describe the irrigation practised in Baluchistan.
3. Write an account of a year in the life of a Brahui man, living in Baluchistan.
4. Draw a sketch-map showing the importance of the position of Quetta.
5. Do you think the Baluchistan Plateau will ever become very important? Give your reasons fully.
6. What is meant by inland drainage? How do you explain it?

CHAPTER XIX

THE PUNJAB

I. THE PROVINCE

Although it lies in the dry north-west, the Punjab is one of the important provinces of India. It has benefited enormously by the great irrigation works carried out by the Government. Punjab means 'five waters' and the Punjab is, strictly, the land of the five rivers—the Jhelum, Chenab, Ravi, Bias and Sutlej. But the province extends beyond this area; it includes the land between the Jhelum and the Indus, as well as part of the land between the Sutlej and the Jumna and part of the Himalayas. Included in the province are a number of Native States, and the whole is larger than the United Provinces and nearly as large as the Madras Presidency. The population is roughly 25,000,000. The most important Native States are those of Patiala, Jind and Nabha, the three Phulkian States.

The greater, and the most important, part of the Punjab forms a portion of the great Plain of Hindustan and will be described under the name of the Punjab Plain. In the north-west is a dry plateau or hilly region which forms a part of the North-West Dry Hills Region. The north-eastern part includes portions of the Himalayan and Sub-Himalayan Regions, whilst the south-east borders the Thar Desert.

II. THE NORTH-WESTERN DRY HILLS REGION

This includes most of the Punjab lying between the Jhelum and the Indus—the Districts of Jhelum, Rawalpindi and Attock. It is a dry sandy plateau bounded on the south by the Salt Range. The most important crop is millet, which depends mainly on the scanty rainfall. There is an oilfield near Attock and salt is mined in the Salt Range. The principal town is *Rawalpindi*, at the foot of the Himalayas, from which a road runs to the hill station of Murree and to the heart of Kashmir. Notice too the important position of Rawalpindi in

connection with railway routes ; the railway works of the North-Western Railway are at Rawalpindi. *Jhelum*, on the borders of the North-Western Hills and the Punjab Plains is a depot for the Kashmir timber trade.

III. THE HIMALAYAN AND SUB-HIMALAYAN REGIONS

For a general description of these regions see under Kashmir. Only the north of the Punjab projects into these regions. On a spur of the Himalayas near the plains, lies Simla, the seat of Government in the Hot Weather. It is 7,000 feet above sea-level and reached by a wonderful Mountain Railway. Where the great rivers of the Punjab leave the Sub-Himalayan Region are the great irrigation works, where the water of the rivers is tapped and directed into the irrigation canals. The Punjab as a whole is very short of timber and efforts have been made to work the fine timbers of the Himalayas. The most valuable are the deodar and the blue pine. The chir pine is also used. The timber is floated down to saw mills on the plains.

IV. THE PUNJAB PLAINS

1. **General Features.**—The word 'punjab' or 'panjab' is a Persian word meaning 'five waters' or 'five rivers'. The Punjab Plains are really the valley plains of the five rivers—Jhelum, Chenab, Ravi, Bias and Sutlej. These five rivers flow from the great Mountain Wall, in a south-westerly direction and all five join to form one river which then joins the River Indus in the south-west corner of the Punjab. Look at Fig. 82 and notice carefully the course of the Punjab rivers. In the dry season the rivers of the Punjab are shallow and slow but in the rainy season, when the warm sun has melted the snows on the mountains, and the monsoon rains are pouring down on the Himalayan slopes, the rivers become rushing torrents often miles wide. The rush of the water does not always follow the same channel. The river may leave its old bed, and in a single night destroy miles of fertile fields, cutting for itself a new channel. Between the rivers there is usually a flat alluvial plain covered with cultivated fields. Sometimes the land rises a little between the rivers and is then very dry and covered with scrub. The regions near the Himalayas sometimes suffer from severe earthquakes,

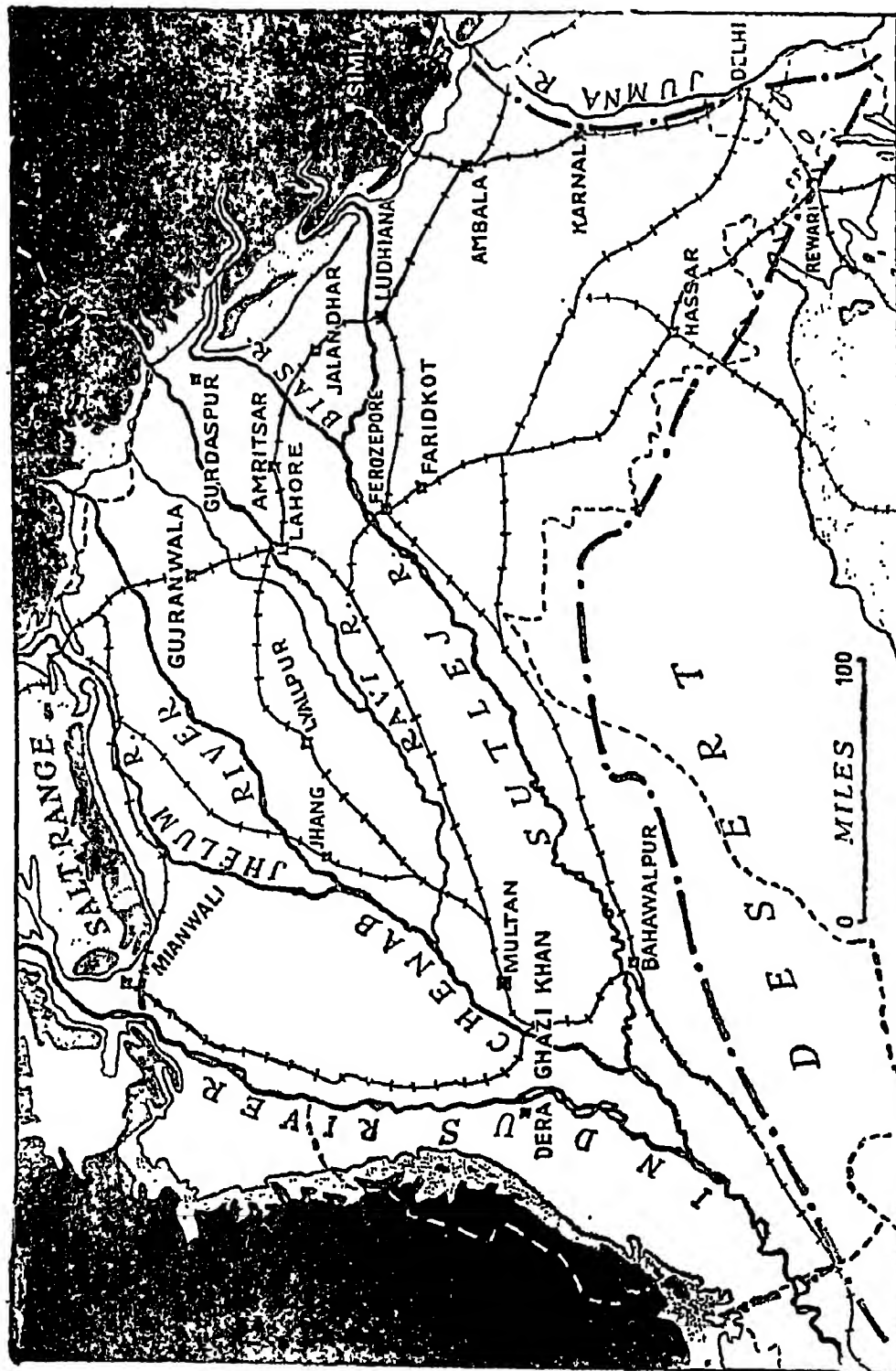


FIG. 82.— The Punjab Plains. Land over 1,000 feet dotted ; land over 3,000 feet black.

2. **Climate.**—The Punjab Plain is a dry region. On the north-west it is sharply marked off from the hills by the Salt Range and in the north-east it stretches to the foot of the Himalayas. But to the south you must remember it is not divided off by a sharp line. South of the Sutlej River the land begins to rise very gradually and becomes drier and drier till it passes into the barren waste of the Desert Region. But there is no place where you can say, 'Here the Desert begins and the Punjab Plain ends.' If we travel eastwards across the Punjab Plain we do not come to any hills but we find that we cross a line after which all the rivers and streams flow eastwards to join the River Jumna and not westwards to join the Sutlej. This water parting marks the dividing line between the two great river basins of Northern India—the basin of the Indus and the basin of the Ganges. This line divides the Punjab Plains from the Upper Ganges Plain.

Throughout the great Punjab Plain there is no hill at all, it is very nearly flat and only slopes very gently from the foot of the mountains towards the south-west.

In Chapters IV and V, we learned that this Dry Region is particularly hot in the months of May, June and July, because it receives no cooling sea breeze and the sun shines brilliantly on its level plains. We learned also that in the months of December and January the Punjab Plain is cooler, generally speaking, than other lowland parts of India, because level plains which are far away from the sea cool very quickly.

When we were studying the rainfall map in Chapter VI, we saw that the whole of this region gets less than 40 inches of rain in the whole year. The driest part is in the south-west and receives less than 5 inches, whilst the wettest parts are near the mountains. Why should this be so?

3. **Irrigation.**—As a result of the small amount of rain, falling during one part of the year only, the Punjab Plain would be a very barren region if man had not worked very hard to improve it. In the Punjab there are four principal ways of irrigating the land—

(a) by wells. There is often water underground even when the surface of the land is dry. This underground water can be reached by wells.

(b) by tanks. In the wetter parts of India rain water is caught and stored for a few months in large ponds or tanks. But in the driest season of the year these tanks are dry also.

(c) by inundation canals. When the rivers are in flood some of the water is drawn off into canals, but later in the year these canals dry up.

(d) by permanent irrigation canals. These are by far the most important because they have water in them for the whole of the year.

From earliest times, the kings, rulers and people of the Punjab have built and used wells and canals in order to provide themselves with water. Since India became part of the British Empire, the Government has spent enormous sums of money in improving old canals and especially in building new ones. In the whole Province of the Punjab, which you must remember includes a large area of hills and mountains, over 13 million acres are irrigated or 51 per cent of the whole. No less than 60 per cent of the plains are irrigated.

4. Sub-divisions.—We find we can divide the Punjab Plain into three separate areas or sub-regions.

(a) The North-Eastern Plain. This is the wettest part (near the foot of the mountains) and has a rainfall of

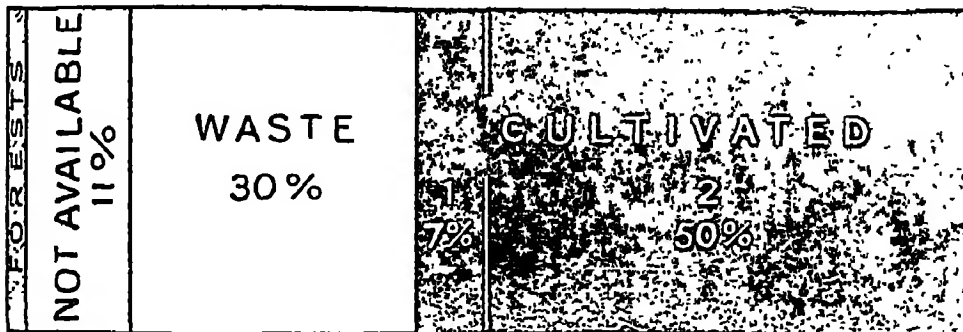


FIG. 83.—Cultivated land, Punjab Plains.

between 25 and 30 inches. A very large number of wells are found in this region and it is possible to grow many crops without canal irrigation.

(b) The South-Western Plain. This is the driest part and the usual rainfall is only from 5 to 10 inches. It is almost impossible to grow anything without irrigation.

(c) The South-Eastern Plain. Here the rainfall is from 20 to 30 inches but it varies very much from year

to year. In good years many dry crops can be grown, but in bad years none.

You will see these three divisions of the Punjab Plain marked in Fig. 84.

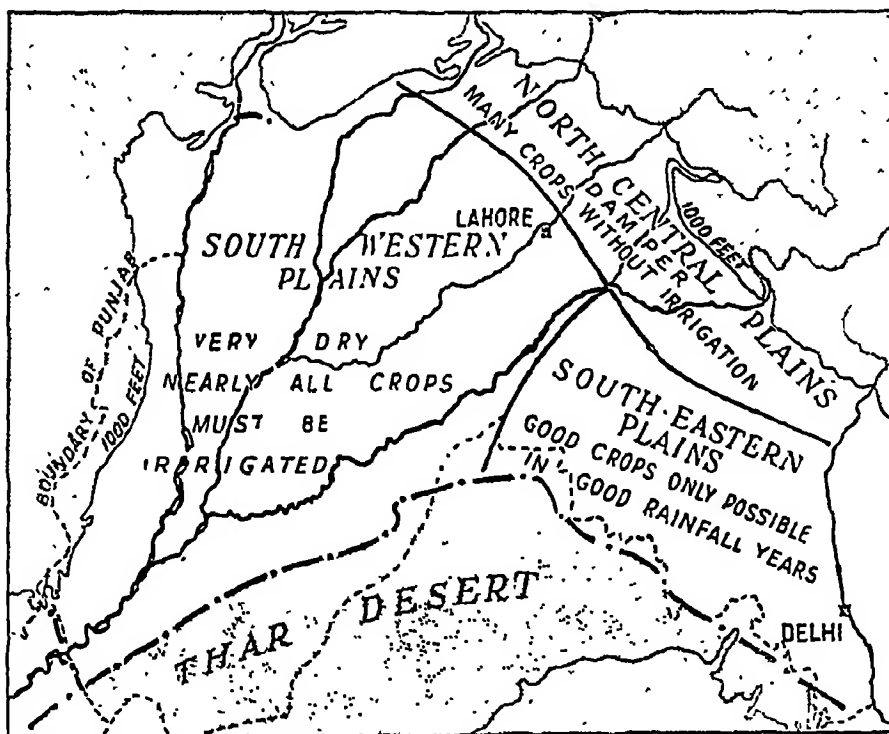


FIG. 84.—The three divisions of the Punjab Plains.

N. Central Division : S.-E. Division : S.-W. Division.

5. **Canals.**—Now look at Fig. 85 and see what a large proportion of the crops in the Punjab Plain are irrigated. Especially in the south-west nearly all the crops depend on Government canals.

In the Punjab Plains there are six very large and important canal systems. You will see the principal canals marked on Fig. 85. Study this map carefully and notice the big main canals and then the branches or distributaries. These are the main canal systems.

(a) The Western Jumna Canal takes the water from the Jumna, near where the river leaves the Himalaya Mountains. This is an old canal which has now been rebuilt and much improved.

(b) The Sirhind Canal takes its water from the Sutlej River and like the Western Jumna Canal it waters the south-eastern part of the Punjab Plain.

(c) The Upper Bari Doab Canal takes its water from the Ravi River from near Madhapur, where the river leaves the Himalaya Mountains. It waters the Bari Doab, or region between the Ravi and Bias Rivers.

(d) The Lower Chenab Canal is one of the largest irrigation works in the world. A great weir was built across the River Chenab at Khanki and nearly $2\frac{1}{2}$ million acres are irrigated.

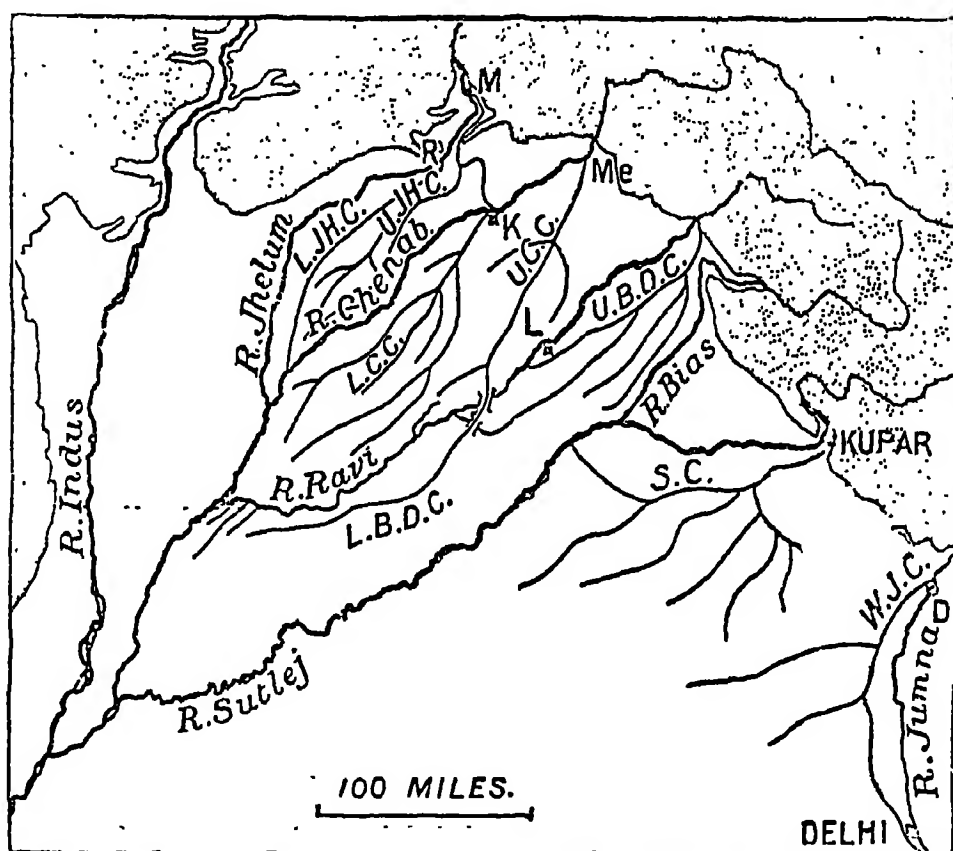


FIG. 85.—The Punjab Canals.

(5) The Lower Jhelum Canal takes its water from the Jhelum at Rasul.

(6) The Upper Chenab—Lower Bari Doab Canal System. This system, also known as 'Triple Project' is one of the cleverest examples of irrigation in the world. The Upper Chenab Canal takes its water from the Chenab at Merala, at the foot of the Himalayas. The main canal is carried by an 'aqueduct' or water bridge across the Ravi

River and then becomes the Lower Bari Doab Canal. But when this scheme was arranged, it was found that so much water would be taken by the Upper Chenab Canal that none would be left for the Lower Chenab Canal. And so the Upper Jhelum Canal was built, which brings water from the Jhelum to the Chenab at Khamki and helps to fill the Lower Chenab Canal. Hence the name of Triple Project. The great system has only recently been finished.

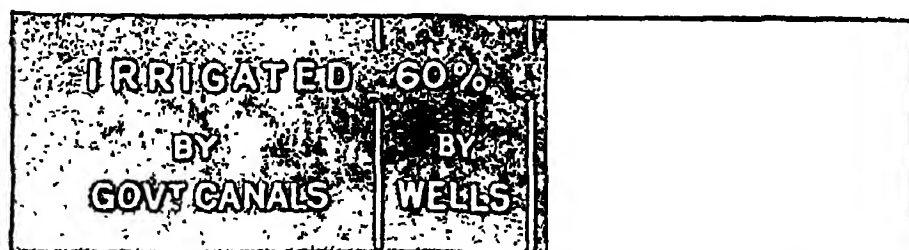


FIG. 86.—Proportion of Crops irrigated, Punjab Plains. Irrigated crops in black.

6. **Crops.**—Now look at Fig. 87—the crops of the Punjab Plains. Notice the most important crop is wheat—occupying nearly one-third of the whole cultivated area. Another important crop is millet, often grown on the same ground as wheat, the wheat being reaped in the Spring and the

RICE	WHEAT	BARLEY	MILLET	MAIZE	OTHER FOODS	OIL SEEDS	COTTON	FODDER	SUGAR	OTHERS
3%	28%	4%	12%		19%		8%	15%		

FIG. 87.—Crops of the Punjab Plains.

millet in the Autumn. Much millet is also grown as a 'dry' crop where wheat cannot be grown. Wheat and millet together with maize, form the staple food of the people. Owing to the splendid irrigation works in the Punjab, more wheat can be grown than the people require. Wheat is the principal food of many of the peoples of Europe where they cannot grow enough for themselves. So every year a large quantity of wheat is sent to the port of Karachi and from there by boat to Europe. Barley is another important crop

and some of it is exported in the same way. Another crop grown largely for export is oilseeds. India uses a very great deal more sugar than she produces, but some sugarcane is grown in many parts of India. A considerable quantity is grown in the north-eastern part of the Punjab Plain. By far the most important crop not grown for food is cotton. On the irrigated land of the Punjab much of the long-stapled American cotton is grown (see Chapter VIII) and exported through Karachi.

In dry regions like the Punjab Plains, there is often not enough grass to feed cattle and so food (called 'fodder') has to be grown for them. Fodder is an important crop because the cattle must be kept for ploughing. There are large numbers of sheep and goats in this region. They live on the poor scrubland which is not good enough for cattle.

7. **People and Towns.**—The larger number of the people in this natural region are engaged in agriculture. They live in small villages, scattered over the plains. Their huts are built of mud or mud and wattle, for there is little or no stone in the great alluvial plain. The roofs of the huts are flat (since there is little rain to run off) and made of rough branches coated with mud. In some parts of the world we find agriculture is carried on from isolated houses or 'farms', each house being some distance from the next. This is the case in Europe and America and also in the Ganges Delta. But in days gone by the peaceful cultivators of the Punjab suffered much from robbers who swept down upon them from the hills and so they lived together in villages for greater safety. In this region the people have not changed their habits and still live together in small villages. Out of every 1,000 people in this region only about 120 live in towns of more than 5,000 inhabitants. In the Punjab Plains there are only seven towns with more than 50,000 people, and several of these are becoming smaller rather than larger. The largest and most important city is, of course, Delhi, the capital of India, which we must study separately. We can divide the other cities into two groups.

(a) The great cities of the past: famous religious centres or ancient capitals, such as Lahore, Amritsar (the old Sikh religious centre) and Multan.

(b) Cities of modern origin or old cities which have

adapted themselves to modern needs and form collecting stations for agricultural produce or have developed manufactures of their own, such as Ambala, Lyallpur and Gujranwala.

Lahore is still the largest city of the province and an old capital. It is an important railway centre and no less than 30,000 people are supported by the railway industry. It is also the seat of Provincial Government.

Amritsar is a newer town than Lahore. During the eighteenth century it was the stronghold of the Sikhs who stood out against the Mohammedans. It suffers badly from fever, largely due to stagnant water which soaks into the surrounding hollow from the Upper Bari Doab Canal. It manufactures carpets and has other small manufactures but they are less important than formerly.

Multan is the natural collecting centre for the south-west of the Punjab. It is a very old town, with old local industries. Afghan traders visit the town (see the map for the routes by which they come) and exchange their raw silk, fruits and spices for piece goods.

Lyallpur is a fine new town with a large wheat trade, the wheat being collected and sent to Karachi. It also has cotton mills.

Ludhiana manufactures cotton fabrics.

Gujranwala is an active trade centre.

Ambala is a modern town, of British origin, and a railway junction.

Patiala is one of the largest towns in a native state, and a trade centre for the south-eastern Punjab.

8. *Delhi*.—Delhi, the capital of India, is a large city of more than 300,000 inhabitants—the sixth largest city in India. It owes its importance to what we call the ‘strategic’ character of its position. Look at Fig. 88 and notice that Delhi stands at the head of both the great plains—the great fertile plain of the Ganges and the great plain of the Indus. From Delhi any place in these great plains is easily reached. In days gone by, as you learn from your history, India was invaded many times from the north-west. The invaders had to pass through or near Delhi on the way: they could not go to the north because they were shut in by the Himalaya Mountains, they could not go to the south for there is the great barren waste of the

great Indian Desert ; or the hilly dry lands of the Central Indian Plateau. So in the past Delhi has often been the capital of India. From it the rulers could easily reach and control all parts, but especially the fertile valley regions. Now also Delhi is the capital of India. Owing to irrigation the lands round about are fertile and covered with crops. Much cotton is grown and finds its way to Delhi where cotton manufacture is carried on. Standing on the Jumna, Delhi is at the ' head of navigation ' of that great river and boats can go all the way from Delhi to Calcutta. The land

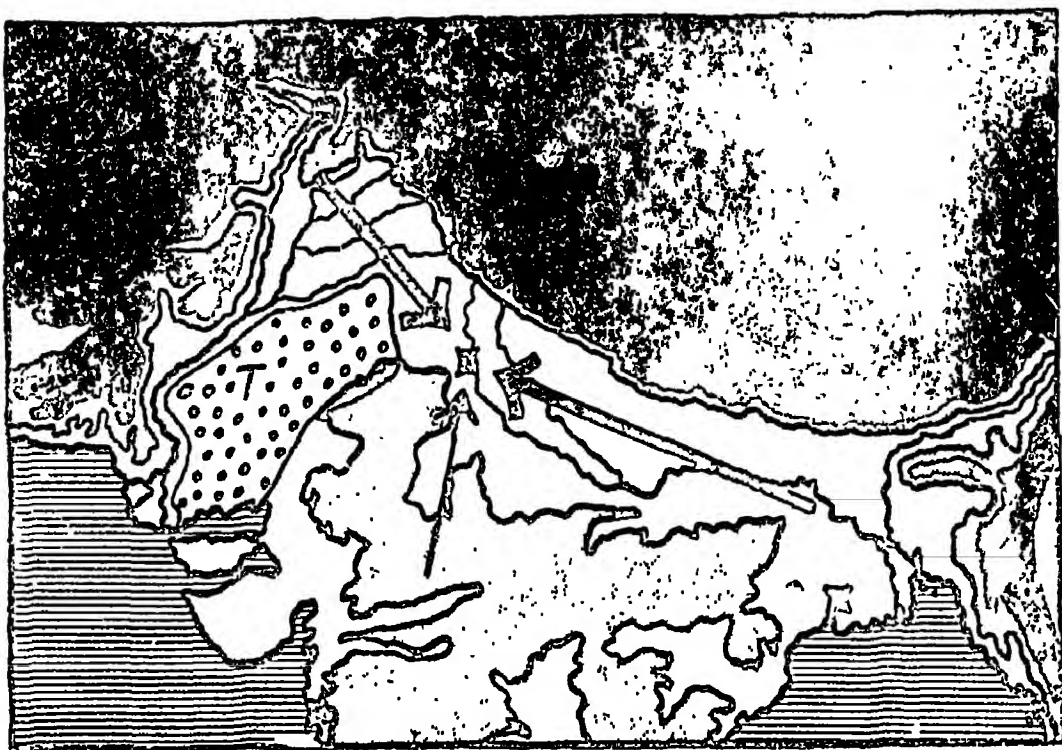


FIG. 88.—The Position of Delhi. T = The Thar Desert.
Land over 1,000 feet dotted ; over 3,000 feet black.

routes from the north-west there joined the water routes of the north-east. In modern times railways have largely replaced the land and river routes and Delhi has become a great railway centre ; easily reached from all parts of India. At a convenient distance to the north, on the healthy heights of the Himalayas is Simla, the hot weather seat of Government. During the hot weather the Government moves from Delhi to Simla. Since Delhi was made the capital of India,

a small tract of land including the city has been made into a separate province.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Write a description, with sketches, of a Punjab village, giving reasons why things are as you describe them.
2. Compare the irrigation of (*a*) Baluchistan, (*b*) Sind and (*c*) the Punjab.
3. Write an account, with sketch-maps, of the hinterland of Karachi, showing the products and how they reach the port.
4. What is the 'Triple Project'? Show by sketches how it operates.
5. Write an essay on Delhi.

CHAPTER XX

THE UNITED PROVINCES

I. THE PROVINCE

The United Provinces of Agra and Oudh have a smaller area than the Punjab, but have nearly twice as many people. The population is denser than in any province of India except Bengal. Yet a large part of the United Provinces has a rainfall of less than 40 inches and its prosperity is largely due to the great irrigation works. The north-western part of the United Provinces stretches into the Himalayan and Sub-Himalayan regions (compare the Punjab) and a small strip along the south forms part of the slope from the Central Indian Plateau. But the largest part of the Provinces lies in the great Ganges Plain. The area west of Allahabad receives less than 40 inches of rain in a year and so forms a natural region which we may call the Upper Ganges Valley or Dry Belt. The region east of Allahabad forms half of the Middle Ganges Valley, of which the other half lies in the Province of Bihar and Orissa.

II. THE HIMALAYAN REGION

For a general account of this region reference should be made to the details given under the State of Nepal. The lower hills in the Sub-Himalayan region, are unhealthy and so a number of hill stations have been built on the most accessible parts of the Himalayan region. Examples are Mussoorie and Naini Tal.

III. THE SUB-HIMALAYAN REGION

It is in the United Provinces that great extensions of cultivation have been made in recent years into the Sub-Himalayan region. Dehra Dun is one of the head-quarters of the Forest Department in India. A famous and sacred place is Hardwar, where the Ganges leaves the mountains. A line of towns has sprung up on the borders of this region

and the Ganges Plain—like frontier towns from which the cultivators have attacked the unhealthy foothills. Examples are Saharanpur, Pilibhit, Kheri, etc.

IV. THE UPPER GANGES VALLEY

1. *General Features.*—At the end of the last chapter we learnt something of the position of Delhi, which stands at the head of both the Indus Basin and the Ganges Basin. West of Delhi all the streams flow westwards to join the River Indus; east of Delhi all streams flow eastwards to join the Ganges. There is no barrier of mountains between the two regions—the Punjab Plains and the Upper Ganges Valley. The Upper Ganges Valley forms another part of the great Hindustan Plains and does not differ greatly from the Punjab. It is another dry region but not so dry as the Punjab. If you refer to the rainfall map of India (Fig. 39) you notice that the driest region of all (less than 5 inches) is in the south-west corner of the Punjab Plains. As we travel down the Ganges Valley from Delhi, it gradually becomes damper and damper. The 40-inch rainfall line passes through the town of Allahabad and we take this line as the eastern limit of the dry region of the Upper Ganges Valley. This region is not quite so hot as the Punjab in the hot season and not quite so cold in the cold season. The annual range of temperature gets less and less as we travel down the Ganges Valley to the wetter regions near the Bay of Bengal.

2. *Physical Features.*—Looking at Fig. 89 we see that about the centre of the region the River Ganges flows in a south-easterly direction. It enters the region from the Himalaya Mountains near Hardwar and leaves it in the south-east at Allahabad. Forming roughly the western, and later the southern boundary of the region is the River Jumna, on which Delhi stands. It too rises in the Himalaya Mountains and flows for a long distance southwards but gradually turns south-eastwards—where it divides the Ganges Plain from the slopes of Central Indian Foreland (Chapter XXX) finally joining the River Ganges at Allahabad. A great part of the Upper Ganges Valley is formed, then, by the Ganges-Jumna Doab (or country between those two rivers): North-east of the River Ganges there is a broad strip of country where the rainfall is less than 40 inches in a year.

and then another strip where it is slightly more than 40 inches, before we reach the Sub-Himalayan Region. Although in this northern part the rainfall is slightly greater than in the Doab, the crops grown are like those in other parts of the Dry Region and so we may say the Dry

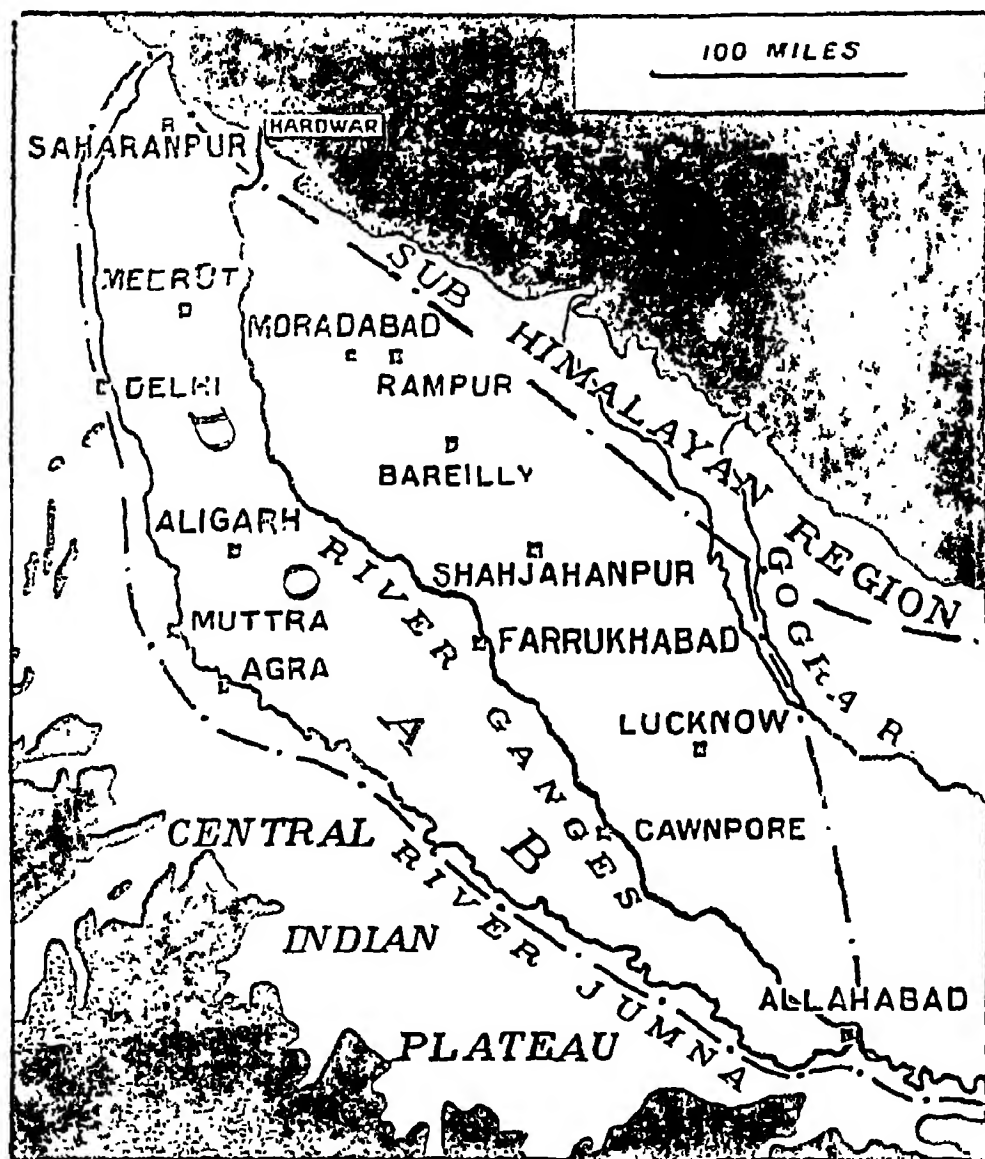


FIG. 89.—The Upper Ganges Valley. All land over 1,000 feet black. Look in your atlas and notice the very many railways in this part of India and also where they run.

Region stretches over the whole Ganges Plain from the Sub-Himalayan Region (as far east as the Gogra River) on the north to the River Jumna on the south. Over the whole of this country there is no hill at all, it is one great plain sloping very gently from Delhi (700 feet) or

Saharanpur (about 800 feet above sea-level) to Allahabad (400 feet).

3. Canals.—In the Upper Ganges Valley there are four very large and important canal systems (see Fig. 90).

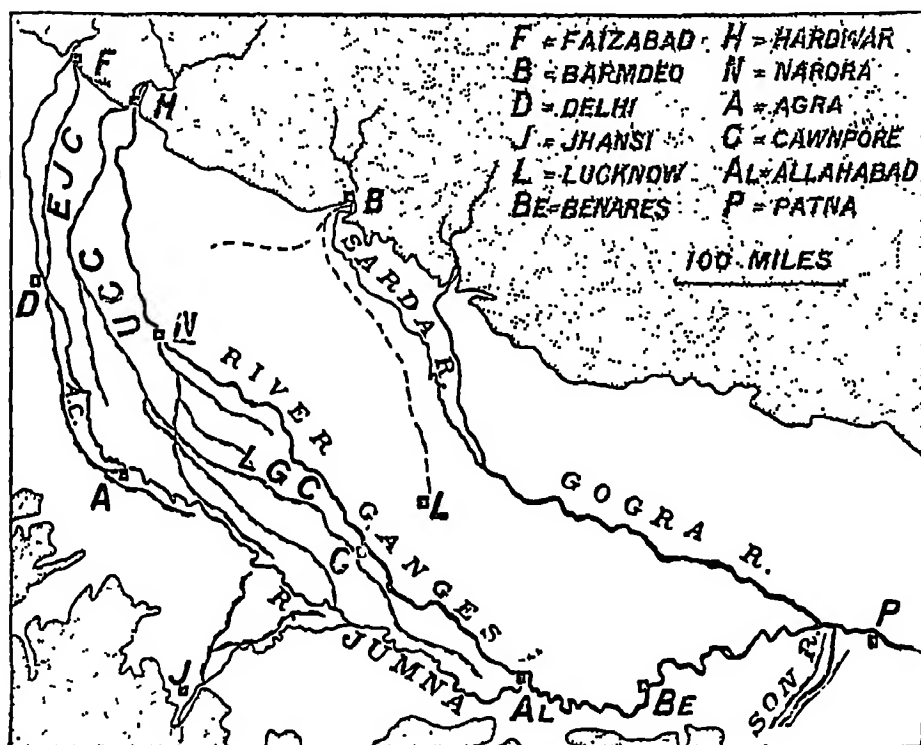


FIG. 90.—The irrigation canals of the Upper Ganges Valley.
Land over 1,000 feet dotted.

(a) The Eastern Jumna Canal which takes the water from the Jumna River near Faizabad, just where the River Jumna comes down from the Himalaya Mountains.

(b) The Agra Canal which takes the water from the Jumna River just below Delhi.

(c) The Upper Ganges Canal which takes the water from the Ganges River near Hardwar, just where the River Ganges comes down from the Himalayas.

(d) The Lower Ganges Canal which takes the water from the River Ganges at Narora.

Notice the Eastern Jumna and the two Ganges Canals irrigate the Ganges-Jumna Doab, but the Agra Canal waters the land south of the Jumna.

North of the River Ganges the irrigation is almost entirely from wells and tanks but a very big weir is now

being built across the Sarda River near Barmdeo. This canal will irrigate the country to the south-east as far as Lucknow.

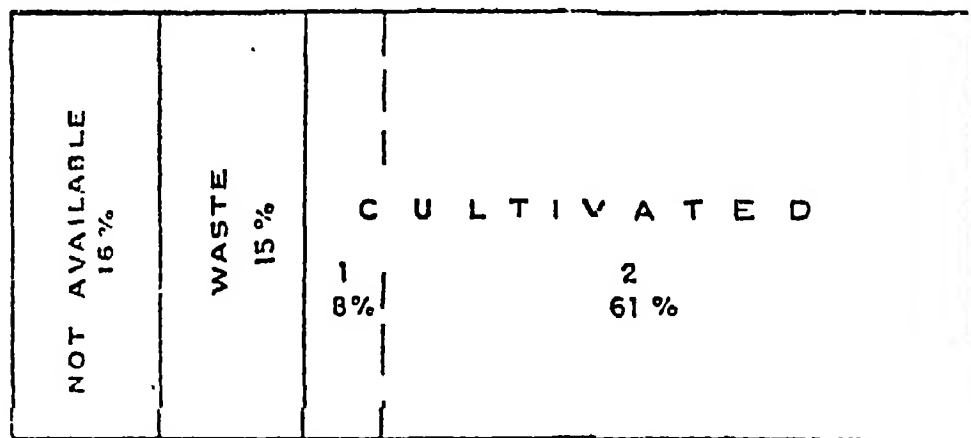
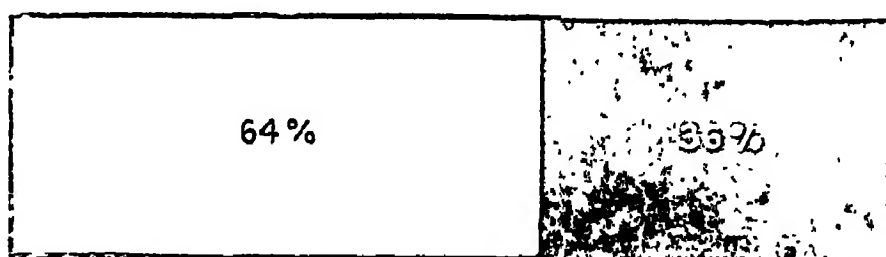


FIG. 91.—Proportion of cultivated land in the Upper Ganges Valley.

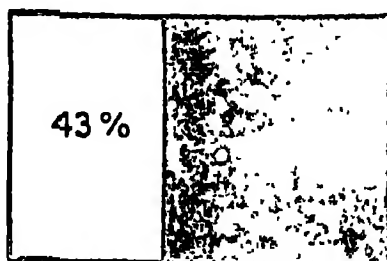
Although this is such a dry region, the canals have made it very fertile. Look at the large proportion of cultivated land (Fig. 91) and the large proportion of the crops which are irrigated (Fig. 92).



UPPER GANGES VALLEY



GANGES-JUMNA
DOAB



MEERUT 57%

FIG. 92.—Proportion of irrigated crops in the Dry Region or Upper Ganges Valley. Irrigated portion in black.

Government has spent about 15 crores of rupees in the

Upper Ganges Plain alone. If the canals were destroyed, thousands would perish of famine.

4. **Crops.**—There is another important result of irrigation. It allows much of the land to be 'double-cropped', that is two crops are grown on the same piece of ground in one year. Wheat is usually a 'winter crop'; other crops can be grown on the same land in the hot season and the rains.

Now look at Fig. 96 (right hand column) the crops of the Upper Ganges Valley. Everywhere in this region wheat and barley occupy a larger area than rice. Nearly always, except just on the eastern borders, wheat alone is more important than rice. Some of the driest districts grow no rice at all. We must remember that the wheat is the principal food of many of the industrial peoples of Europe and much is exported from this region. Another important food of the people themselves who live in the Dry Region of the Upper Ganges Valley is often millet, which forms a very important crop, second in importance only to wheat. Other food crops include maize, gram and various pulses. By far the most important crop not grown for food is cotton. Look again at Fig. 47 and note its distribution. Agra and Delhi are two important centres. The native Indian cottons are short-stapled and can be grown on land which is not irrigated. The much better long-stapled American varieties can be grown in India only on irrigated land and form an important part of the crop. Sugar-cane is grown in most parts of India but the most important region is the one we are now studying. You will notice from Fig. 96 that sugar only occupies a small area when compared with other crops, but it is still very important.

Fodder is an important crop because, for its size, the Upper Ganges Valley has more cattle than any other region of India. Both bullocks and buffaloes are very numerous. They are used for ploughing, but a large number of cows are kept for the sake of their milk. Aligarh and other districts are famous for their butter. There are not many sheep in this region. Sheep thrive in dry regions and can live on much poorer grass than cattle. Although this region is a dry one it is so extensively cultivated that there is little waste land left on which sheep can be kept.

5. *People.*—The larger number of the people in this natural region are engaged in agriculture. They live in small villages, scattered over the plains. Their huts are built of mud or mud and wattle, for there is no stone in the great alluvial plain. As in the Punjab the people live together in small villages. Throughout this natural region, the people speak Hindustani, and by far the larger number are Hindus. Out of every 1,000 people in this natural region only about 120 live in towns of more than 5,000 people. In the Upper Ganges Valley there are only fourteen cities with more than 50,000 people, and many of these are becoming smaller rather than larger. The largest and most important city is of course, Delhi, the capital of India, which we have already studied. We can divide the other cities into two groups.

(a) The great cities of the past; famous religious centres or ancient capitals such as Lucknow, Allahabad and Muttra.

(b) Cities which have adapted themselves to modern needs and form collecting stations for agricultural produce or have developed manufactures of their own, such as Cawnpore, Meerut and Moradabad. Included here are the 'frontier' towns on the borders of the Sub-Himalayan Region. Saharanpur is the most important.

Lucknow is still the largest city of the province and an old capital. It is an important railway centre and has small manufactures, but is rapidly getting smaller.

Allahabad, situated at the junction of the Jumna and the sacred Ganges is a very important place of pilgrimage. Its position at the junction of these two great waterways and now as a railway centre makes it an important collecting centre but it has no manufactures of its own. It is the centre of Government of the United Provinces and a considerable proportion of its people are in Government employ.

Muttra on the Jumna, near the head of the Agra Canal, is an important religious centre.

Farrukhabad on the Ganges is an example of a place which used to be important owing to its situation on the great waterway, but the railways have now become the great arteries of trade and Farrukhabad is rapidly decreasing.

Cawnpore on the Ganges is one of the largest cities in the region. It is a great railway centre. It is the chief collecting station for the agricultural products of the whole region and has important manufactures of its own.

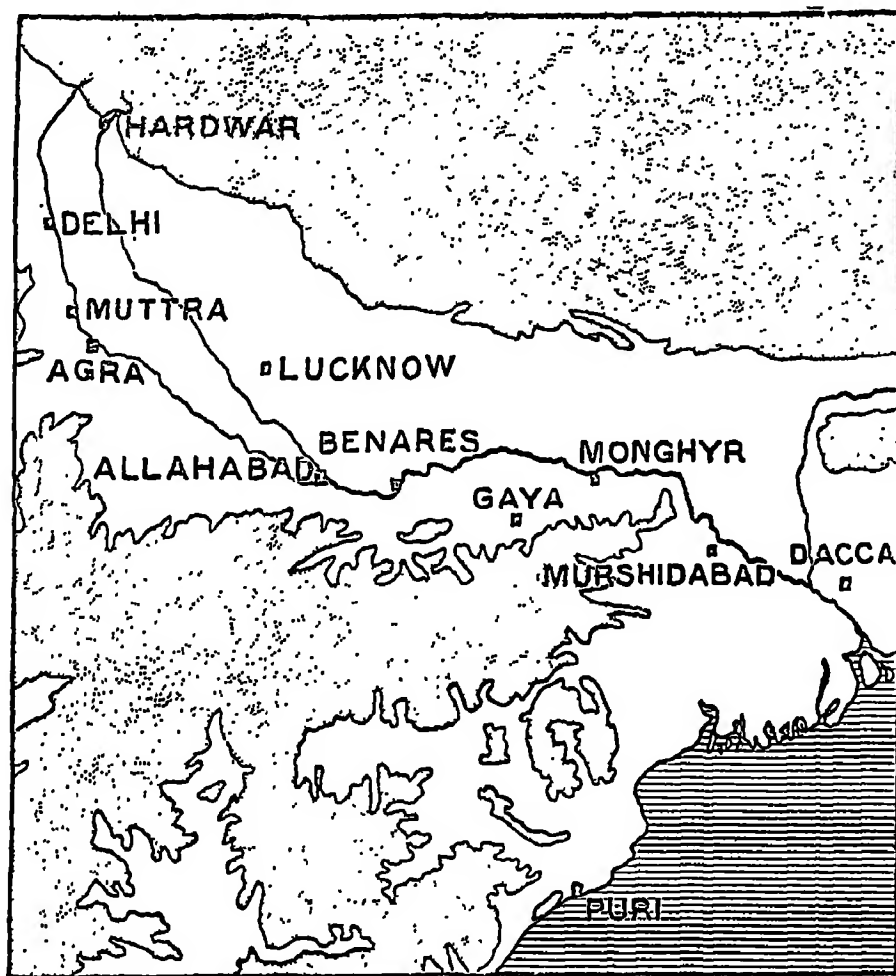


FIG. 93.—The historic towns of the Ganges Valley.
All land over 1,000 feet dotted.

Meerut and *Moradabad* are growing centres in the richest parts of the region. *Agra* has also important industries.

Other big towns you should notice are Bareilly, Aligarh, Rampur and Shahjahanpur.

V. THE MIDDLE GANGES VALLEY

This is a natural region lying partly in the United Provinces (east of Allahabad) and partly in Bihar. It is damper than the Upper Ganges Valley and irrigation is less necessary. The wet region crop, rice, gradually becomes

more important than wheat. When compared with the Upper Ganges Valley, there is more rain and a smaller annual range of temperature. We will describe the region in greater detail under Bihar and Orissa. Taking the part which lies in the United Provinces, *Benares* is the largest town; an ancient centre of Hindu culture and a very sacred place of pilgrimage on the Ganges. *Mirzapur* and *Fyzabad* are neglected river ports.

Gorakhpur is now a great collecting centre and railway centre for the northern part of the region.

Along the north this part of the United Provinces borders Nepal and a small strip of the United Provinces really lies in the Sub-Himalayan Region. There is a line of towns along the border, from which cultivation has been extended right to the Nepal Frontier.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Describe the climate of the Upper Ganges Valley.
2. Draw a sketch-map of the Upper Ganges Valley showing separately the parts producing most rice and those producing most wheat. How do you explain this distribution of crops?
3. Give an account, with sketch-maps, of irrigation in the Upper Ganges Valley.
4. Draw sketch-maps from memory illustrating the position of Cawnpore, Allahabad, Delhi and Saharanpur.
5. Describe a journey from the Himalaya Mountains to the Central Indian Plateau.
6. Find another natural region in the world like the Upper Ganges Valley.
7. Compare a day in the life of a villager living in this natural region with a day in the life of a villager living in the Himalayan Region.

CHAPTER XXI

✓ BIHAR AND ORISSA

I. THE PROVINCE

The Province of Bihar and Orissa has only been in existence since 1912, and was partly carved out of Bengal. It is almost exactly the same size as the United Provinces, but includes large areas of forested plateau land and so has fewer inhabitants. Patna on the Ganges is the provincial capital. The province falls very easily into three natural regions which also correspond approximately to administrative divisions. These regions are:— (1) The Middle Ganges Valley corresponding roughly with Bihar, (2) The Chota Nagpur Plateau corresponding with Chota Nagpur, (3) The Orissa Coastal Strip embracing the division of Orissa.

II. THE MIDDLE GANGES VALLEY ¹

1. **General Characters.**—In the last chapter we learnt of the dry regions of the Upper Ganges Valley, where the rainfall is less than 40 inches in a year and where irrigation is necessary for the proper growth of most crops. We learnt, too, that everywhere in that region wheat and barley together, and usually wheat alone are more important than rice. In the next chapter on the Deltas Region or the Lower Ganges Valley, we shall learn of a region where the rainfall is everywhere more than 60 or 70 inches, where much of the land is flooded every year and where rice occupies three-quarters of the total area of crops. In the Deltas Region too, practically no wheat or barley is grown and no millet; the climate is too wet. The region which

¹ This natural region comprises nearly the whole of Bihar north of the Ganges and the United Provinces east of Allahabad and north of the river, except a narrow strip in the north belonging to the Terai (Sub-Himalayan Region). A strip of Bihar, south of the river and forming parts of the districts of Shahabad, Patna, Gaya, etc., also belongs to this region.

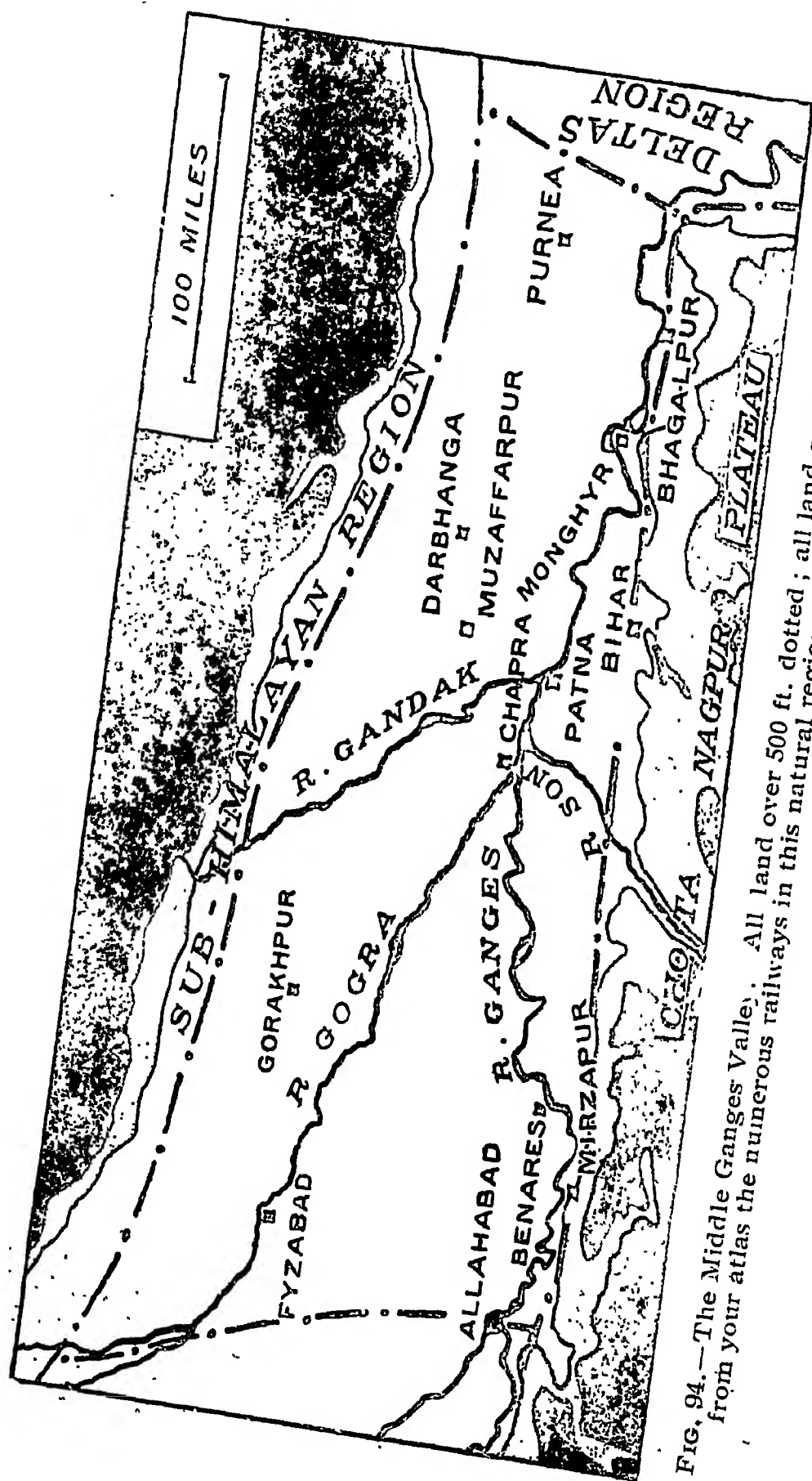


FIG. 94.—The Middle Ganges Valley. All land over 500 ft. dotted ; all land over 1,000 ft. black. Notice from your atlas the numerous railways in this natural region.

we are now going to study in detail and which we have called the Middle Ganges Valley lies between the Dry Region of the Upper Ganges and the very wet region of the Deltas. We find that its characters are between the two, and its crops are a mixture of those most important in the drier regions and those found in the Deltas Region.

2. *Climate*.—There is no sharp line which forms the boundary of the Upper Ganges Valley or Dry Region. At its western end the Middle Ganges Valley passes gradually into the Dry Region, and we can take Allahabad or the 40-inch rainfall line as very roughly the division between the two. As we travel from Allahabad down the River Ganges eastwards we find the climate gradually becomes damper, the crops gradually change from those of the dry region to those of the wetter. Thus the part of the Middle Ganges Valley which lies in the United Provinces is drier than the part in Bihar. Although there is a gradual change from one end to the other the Middle Ganges Valley has certain characters of its own. There are no great canals for irrigation. The rainfall is sufficient and crops can be grown without water brought from wetter regions. We find that in the dry season, when the surface soil gets dry, water from wells is used to help the crops but this 'irrigation from wells' is different from the great system of canals found in the Upper Ganges Valley.

The Punjab Plains and Upper Ganges Valley being a long way from the sea are very hot in the hot season, but cold in the cold season. The Middle Ganges Valley is nearer the sea and does not suffer from such great heat in the hot season. Its rainfall varies from rather less than 40 inches at Allahabad to more than 70 inches in the northern part of Purnea District. When, however, we compare the climate of this region with that of the Deltas Region we find the rainfall is less and the air is much drier. In the Middle Ganges Valley, the cold season which lasts for four months (November to February) is colder than in the Deltas Region and in European houses fires are used. The average temperature for Bihar in December or January is only 61° compared with about 66° at Calcutta in the Deltas Region. The *Hot Weather*, lasting from March to June, is hotter than in the Deltas Region and the air drier. Hot

scorching winds blow down the Ganges Valley from the still hotter regions of the Punjab.

The part of this natural region lying south of the River Ganges is somewhat drier and here we find irrigation canals, deriving their water from the Son River.

3. Rivers.—Like the Upper Ganges Valley and the Deltas, this is a flat region without any hills and again part of the great Plain of Hindustan. It stretches from the Sub-Himalayan on the north to the slopes of the Chota Nagpur Plateau on the south. Near its south boundary is the middle course of the great Ganges River, but the northern three-quarters of the region is watered by numerous streams flowing down from the Himalaya Mountains. All the streams bring down quantities of mud and silt and

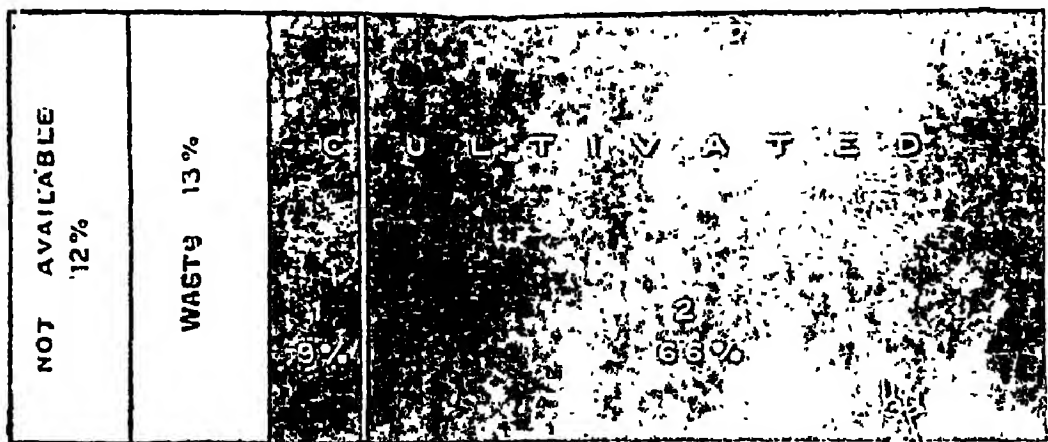


FIG. 95.—Proportion of cultivated land in the Middle Ganges Valley.
1 = fallow ; 2 = sown.

have built up for themselves banks which are higher than the surrounding land. Often during the rainy season they overflow and flood the land on either side. The rivers, too, frequently change their courses and there are numerous shallow lakes or marshes scattered over the Middle Ganges Valley which represent old, deserted courses of such rivers or low lying areas between the rivers. But look at Fig. 95 and notice what a large proportion of this region is cultivated—three-quarters of the whole. So we find the marshes are drained and as far as possible used for cultivation. Notice from Fig. 95 that there are no original forests left. In the narrow strip south of the River

Ganges, the land is drier and marshes are rare. Here the Son and other streams are used for irrigation.

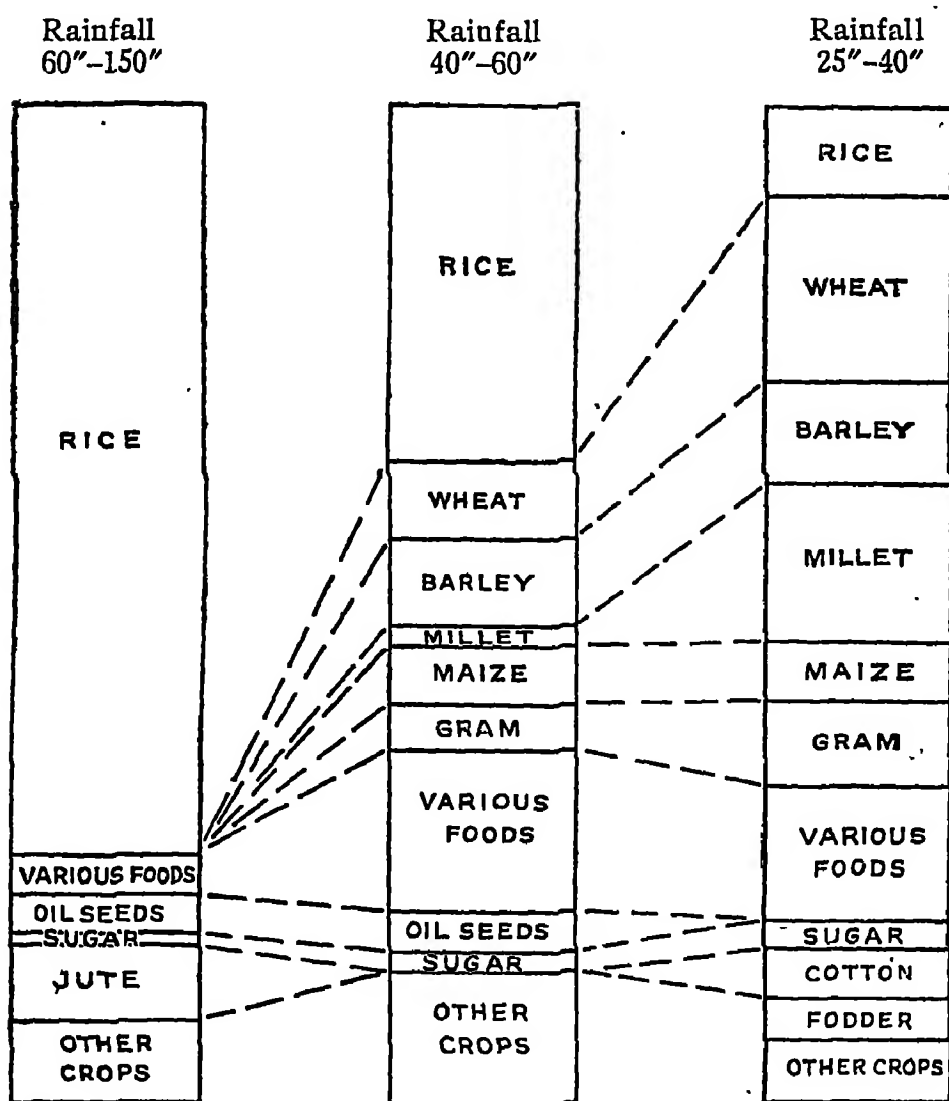


FIG. 96.—The crops of the Ganges Valley—the three main natural regions compared.

4. Crops.—Now let us look at the crops grown in this region (Fig. 96). Rice has now become the most important. Wheat and barley are also grown but in smaller quantity. But millet, which is the staple grain in many of the drier parts of India has now almost disappeared and only a very little is grown. Cotton, too, is of very little importance in this region but we find a considerable area is sown with oilseeds (linseed, rape or mustard and sesamum) which are not important in the Upper Ganges Valley.

: This natural region used to be the principal indigo region of India. Indigo was grown for the preparation of a dye but now the dyes are made artificially in factories and the indigo industry is no longer important.

5. **People.**—The inhabitants of the greater part of this natural region, that is, of Bihar, are the Biharis. 'On the whole, they are men of slow thoughts but long memories, vigorous and disciplined.' They are somewhat different from the quicker but less vigorous Bengalis of the Deltas Region. They live in a healthier region and so are physically stronger. Like the Bengalis, the Biharis live in small houses in the midst of their lands and not in villages like the people of the Upper Ganges Valley. Three out of every four persons are engaged in agriculture and only one in every ten in industry. The population working the land is so dense that every year large numbers are compelled to leave their own country and go to other parts of India to work. Many of them go every year in the cold season to work in the mills of Bengal or the docks of Calcutta, returning to their own homes after four or five months in time to cultivate their land.

There are few large towns in this natural region. Just as in the Upper Ganges Valley, there are famous old towns like Monghyr and more modernized towns which are developing industries like Patna. The largest town of the natural region, Benares, was mentioned in the last chapter as it lies in the United Provinces.

Patna, the headquarters of the Province of Bihar and Orissa, is second in size only to Benares. Besides being the centre of Government of the Province, it is an important collecting centre for agricultural produce. Patna has given its name to 'Patna Rice', a very fine kind of rice. The town stretches for a long distance along the banks of the Ganges. It is south of the river and so connected directly with Calcutta by the East Indian Railway (see Chapter XLI).

Bhagalpur is another large town on the south bank of the river towards the eastern end of the natural region.

Monghyr is a famous old town also on the southern shores of the River Ganges, between Patna and Bhagalpur.

Darbhanga is a large and important town in the centre

of the rich plains of Northern Bihar, and serves as a collecting and distributing centre.

Muzaffarpur is further west in the same region, and is less important. It is the centre of the now dying indigo industry.

Chapra is situated at the junction of the Gogra and Ganges Rivers and used to be a very important river-port, with numerous factories, but it is now getting smaller.

Bihar is a small town some distance south of the River Ganges and on the borders of the Middle Ganges Valley and the Chota Nagpur Plateau.

III. THE CHOTA NAGPUR PLATEAU

The Chota Nagpur Plateau forms the north-eastern part of the great Plateau of Peninsular India. It consists of forest covered country inhabited by backward tribes. The plateau parts themselves have only about sixty people to the square mile.

The forests are the most important part of the Chota Nagpur Plateau. The rainfall is good; everywhere it

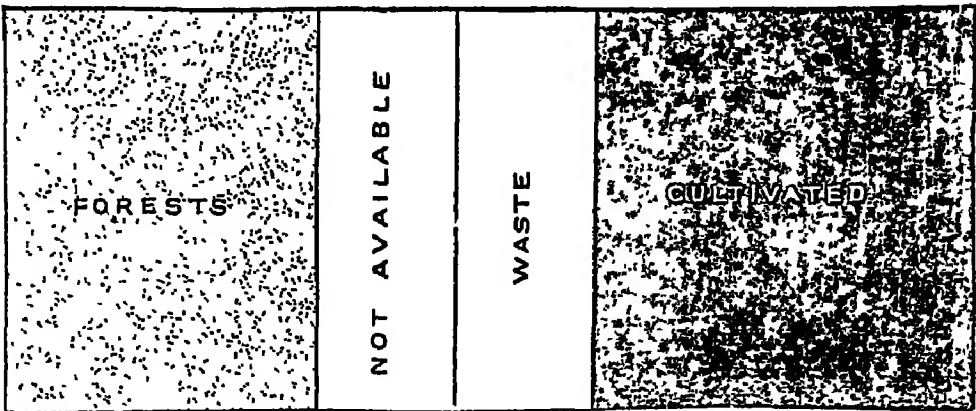


FIG. 97.—Proportion of cultivated land in the Chota Nagpur Plateau, not including the northern slopes with sandy soil in Gaya and Mirzapur, where are found few forests, but much waste land.

receives more than 40 inches of rain and so we find splendid forests of the valuable sal tree and other trees whose wood makes good timber. On the flatter parts of

the plateau we may find open grassy downland or areas of scrubland. Many of the river valleys are rocky but where they are broader a little paddy can be grown. The paddy fields are not like the big flat ones which we see in the plains, but they are narrow ones built down the valley sides like a series of big steps. The soil in the valleys is often good because the rain washes down the fine particles from the hill sides into the valley, but on the ridges the soil is often poor. On the hill sides or ridges where the soil is good enough maize, millet, oilseeds and pulses can be grown. Only a small proportion of the land is cultivated. Much of it is 'waste' and a large part is covered with forests. In the north of the region, on the slopes towards the Ganges Valley, there are large areas of dry sandy soil as in Mirzapur. An important industry in the forest parts is the collection of lac. Lac is a sticky or resinous substance deposited on the small branches of trees by a tiny insect called the lac insect. The substance is collected and purified and is used for many purposes, such as in the manufacture of paint and varnish, sealing-wax and gramophone records.

The Chota Nagpur Plateau is one of the wildest and least known parts of India and is inhabited by very primitive tribes. Many of these forest tribes still use bows and arrows, and some of them live mainly on the wild animals, chiefly monkeys, they catch or on wild fruits gathered from the trees. The only clothing some of them wear consists of a few leaves.

The Chota Nagpur Plateau gives us a fine example of how the people living in one natural region may be quite cut off from those living in another. This is often so with people living in hilly regions or forests where it is difficult to travel about. In the plains the people can travel about easily and so exchange ideas with one another and thus become civilized. But in the hills it is difficult to travel about and the people keep all their old customs. You learn in your history how successive races have invaded India and settled in the fertile plains and have driven the original inhabitants away into the hills. The natives of the Chota Nagpur Plateau were in past ages driven into the hills and there they have remained. They are small people only about five feet high, honest and brave. They would look

upon us who live in the plains as 'foreigners'. There are many different tribes, the Santhals are the most numerous. Many of the tribes speak old languages of their own, quite different from any of ours. It is found that out of every 100 people only three travel on a railway in a year, so you see they are still very backward.

You have learnt in Chapter III that most of the valuable minerals are found in areas of old, hard crystalline rocks, like those which form the Chota Nagpur Plateau. In the north are many mica mines. Mica is a mineral rather like glass, you can see through it, but it can be bent and can also be made very very hot without melting. So it is used for making little windows in furnaces where glass would be melted, and for other purposes. In the district of

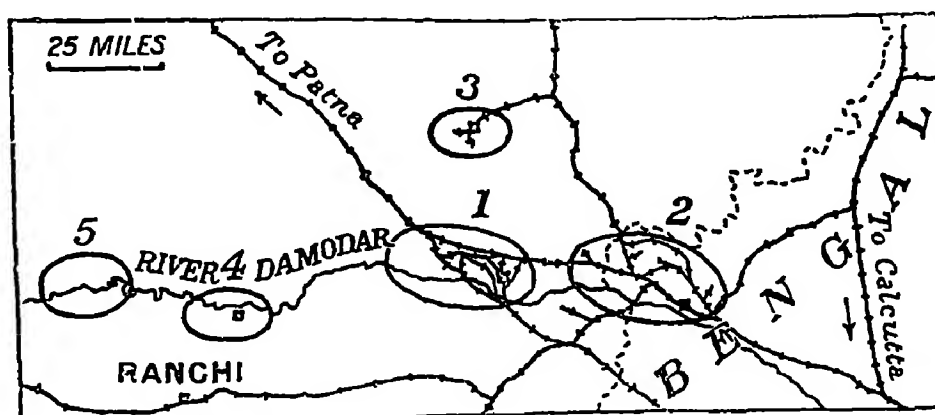


FIG. 98.—The Coalfields. 1=Jherria Field; 2=Raniganj Field; 3=Giridih Field; 4=Bokaro-Ramgarh Field; 5=Karanpura Field.

Notice the net work of railways in the two most important fields (1 and 2).

Singhbum are found valuable deposits of iron ore as well as copper and manganese. Limestone is also quarried in several places. A large part of the Chota Nagpur Plateau is in the Province of Bihar and Orissa. On the edges of the plateau are some valuable coalfields—a small one at Daltonganj but very important ones around Jherria, Raniganj and Asansol on the eastern slopes of the plateau. Nearly $\frac{9}{10}$ of all the coal produced in India comes from that region. Fig. 98 shows the position of the coalfields.

IV. ORISSA

Orissa forms part of the coast region of the northern part of the east coast—the Northern Circars Region. Along the coast itself are useless sand dunes or mangrove

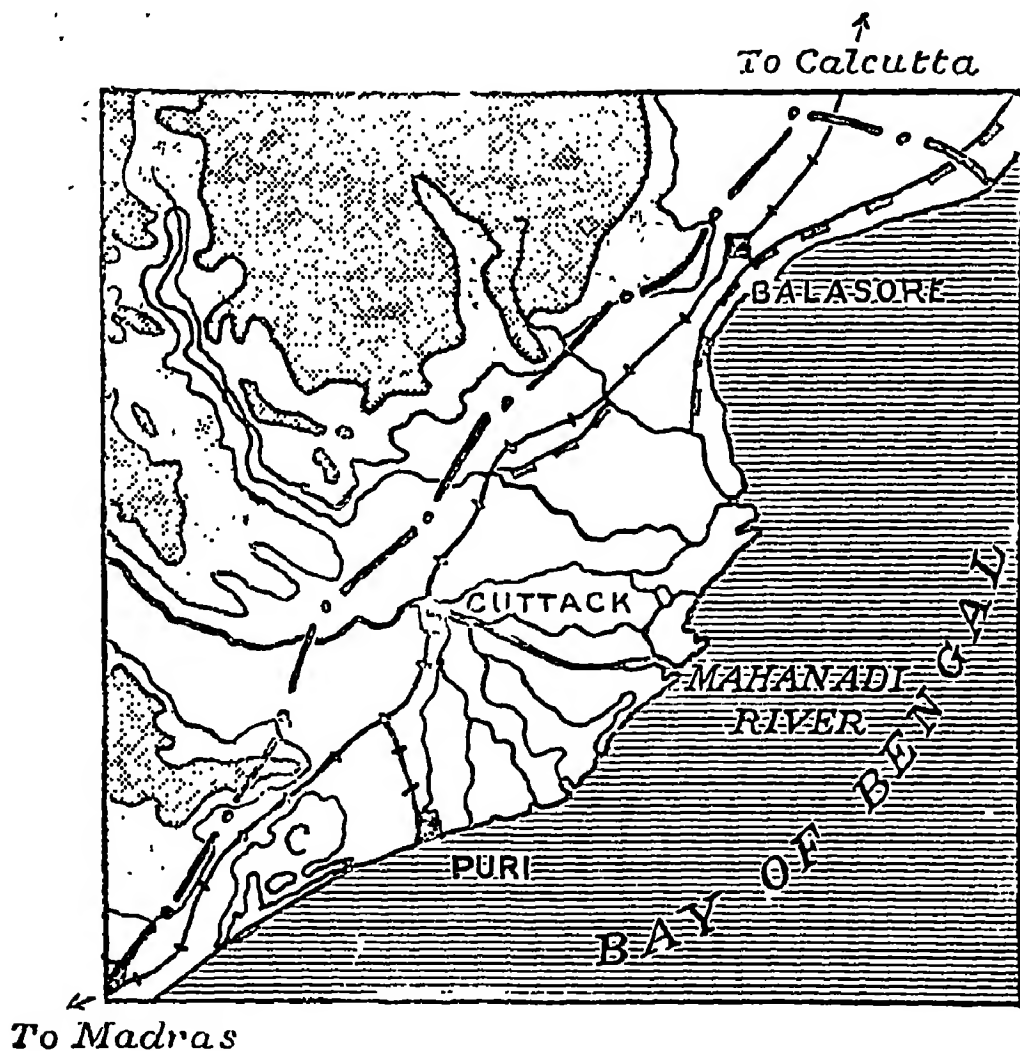


FIG. 99.—The Orissa Coastal Strip. Land over 500 feet with lines, land over 1,000 feet dotted.

swamps, behind these are fertile paddy lands. Further inland are low hills, tree covered, and fertile valleys. Two-thirds of this fertile and thickly populated region are cultivated, and rice occupies more than $\frac{4}{5}$ of the cultivated land. The chief towns are *Puri*, a famous place of pilgrimage and a seaside resort, *Cuttack*, an old capital of the kings of Orissa; and *Balasore*, once an important port with English, French and Dutch factories, but now little used.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Compare the climate of the Middle Ganges Valley with that of the Upper Ganges Valley and the Delta.
2. Draw a sketch-map showing position and reasons for importance of the following towns :—Darbhanga, Chapra, Patna.
3. Describe the life of a cultivator living in Northern Bihar.
4. Divide the province of Bihar and Orissa into its natural regions. Draw a sketch-map and describe very briefly the chief features of each region.
5. Draw a sketch-map showing the distribution of sal forests in North-eastern India.

CHAPTER XXII

BENGAL

I. THE PROVINCE

The boundaries of the Presidency of Bengal have frequently been changed. Its present boundaries were determined in 1912. It consists almost entirely of a vast alluvial plain, crowded with people. There are so many people that it is one of the most thickly populated regions in the world, with nearly 600 people to the square mile.

Nearly the whole of Bengal belongs to one natural region—the Lower Ganges Valley or Deltas Region, consisting of the deltas of those mighty rivers, the Ganges and Brahmaputra. In the north a small strip of Terai country (known in Bengal as the Duars) belongs to the Sub-Himalayan Region, whilst the District of Darjeeling lies in the Himalayan Region. In the east the Lushai Hills and the small state of Hill Tippera belong to the Eastern Hills Region ; in the west the region near the coal-fields may be considered as belonging to the slopes of the Chota Nagpur Plateau. But by far the greater part of the Bengal belongs to the Deltas Region.

II. THE DELTAS REGION ¹

1. General Features.—You will remember that the great Ganges Plain is divided into three parts by its climate. We have studied the Upper Ganges Valley or Dry Region and the Middle Ganges Valley and there remains now only the Lower Ganges Valley or the Delta. It comprises nearly the whole of the Province of Bengal, and includes the lower part of the valleys of the Ganges and the Brahmaputra as well as the Surma Valley Region in Assam. Nearly the whole of this region is a fertile alluvial plain—

¹ Comprising the whole of Bengal except Darjeeling, Jalpaiguri, Chittagong Hill Tracts and part of Chittagong ; as well as the Sylhet District or Surma Valley of Assam.

watered by the Ganges and Brahmaputra with their numerous tributaries and distributaries. For thousands of square miles there is not a hill or even a rock; the soil is everywhere a fine silt or 'alluvium' and not a stone is to be found. The region is practically flat; the rise from the sea

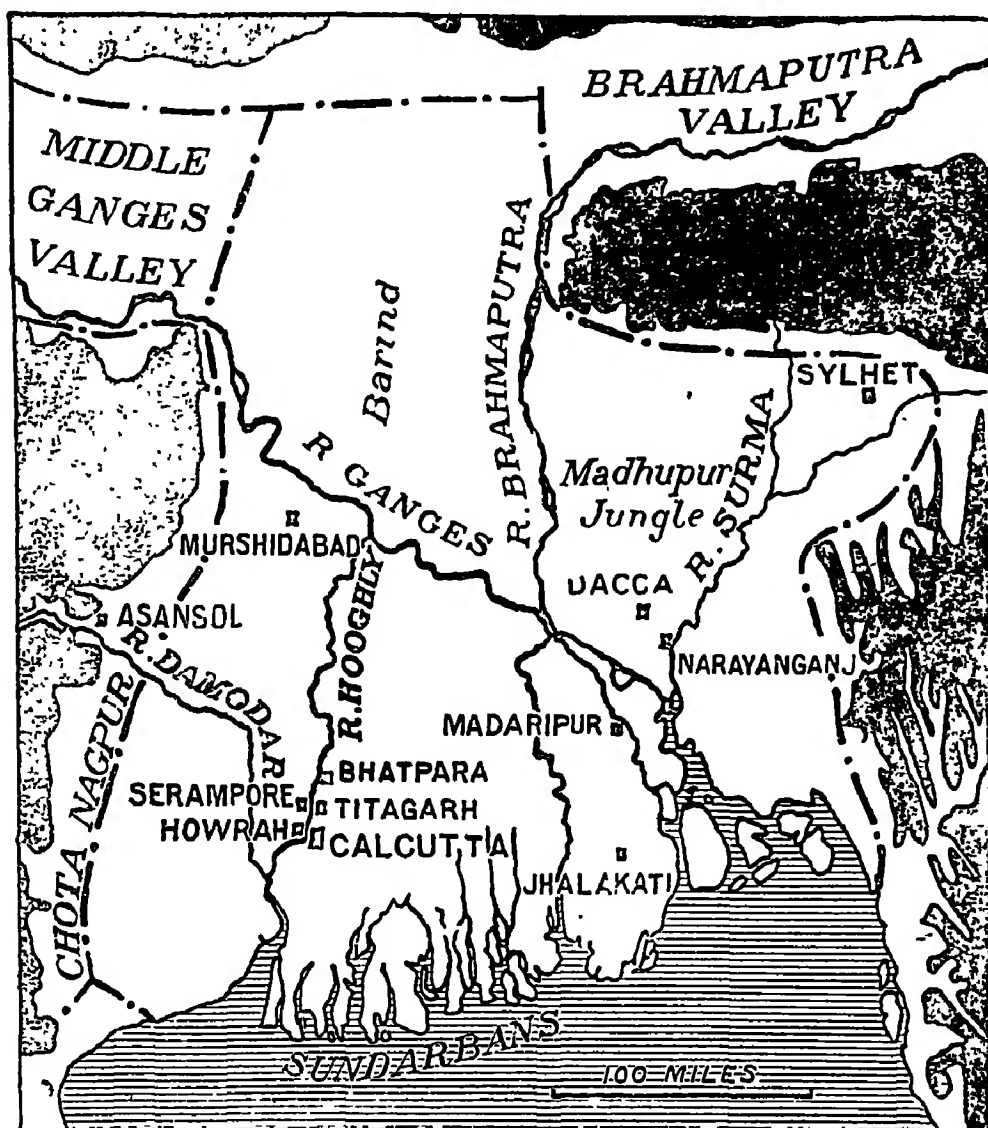


FIG. 100.—The Deltas Region. All land over 1,000 feet black.

towards the north is so very gradual that it cannot be seen. The heavy rainfall makes this region very different from the Upper and Middle Ganges valleys, instead of being dry and brown in the Hot Season the country is always green.

To enable us to study it more carefully we may divide the region into three parts :—

(a) The Ganges-Brahmaputra Doab, sloping gradually from the Sub-Himalayan Region in the north towards the Ganges. The usual flat surface is broken by a stretch of low hills, called the Barind, covered with the remains of a former forest. This region is also known as North Bengal. There are numerous silted-up river channels and the rivers even now frequently change their courses.

(b) The Old Delta or Central and Western Bengal. Owing to several causes the great Delta of the Ganges and Brahmaputra has moved gradually from west to east. Central Bengal is a land of 'dead and dying rivers'. Formerly the river channels carried water from the Ganges to the sea but now very little water passes through them. The place of river channels is now often taken by large swamps or 'bhils'; many of which have been redrained and form valuable rice land. Near the sea are the Sundarbans—extensive swamp forests which furnish useful timber to the towns further inland. In Central Bengal the country is not as a rule more than 50 feet above sea-level but to the west it gradually rises and passes finally into undulating ground on the borders of the Chota Nagpur Plateau. It is here that we find the important coalfields of Western Bengal—forming really a small natural region on the borders of the Deltas and the Plateau. (See Chapter XXI.)

(c) The New Delta and the Surma Valley. Here the great rivers are still actively building up their deltas and every year huge quantities of silt are brought down by the Ganges and Brahmaputra. In the high water season a great part of the area is flooded and a rich deposit of silt spread over the country. In the north-east is a small area of low hills—only having an average height of 40 feet above sea-level—but still important enough to prevent the River Ganges changing its channel to even further east. This region is called the Madhupur Jungle and is still covered with grass or forest. Closely connected is the Surma Valley. In this region, the true delta, there are few or no roads; bullock carts are useless and nearly all travelling is carried out by boats.

2. Climate.—In Figs. 18 and 19 of Chapter IV we learned that the temperature of this part of North-eastern India

is warmer than that of the drier regions of the Upper Ganges Valley in the cold weather but it is much cooler in the hot weather. It has, as we say, a 'more equable climate'.

The rainfall of the Deltas Region is everywhere good and we notice that the rainfall increases gradually as we leave the borders of the Chota Nagpur Plateau or the Middle Ganges Valley and go eastwards towards the rainy Eastern Hills Region. Malda on the western borders has 53, Calcutta 60, Dacca 73 and Sylhet 160 inches. Everywhere the rainfall is sufficient for the growth of a rich and luxuriant vegetation and for the cultivation of paddy. Nearly everywhere one sees rice swamps, with here and there a collection of huts with its clump of bamboos, palms and plantains. Now we will look at the three parts into which we have divided the Deltas Region.

3. **The Ganges-Brahmaputra Doab or North Bengal.**—This area stretches from the Terai country or the Sub-Himalayan Region on the north as far as the Ganges River on the south. To the north-east is the narrow Brahmaputra Valley, to the west is the Ganges Valley. It is watered by streams flowing down from the Himalaya Mountains. They are torrents in the wet season, and frequently change their courses (like the Tista has done) but in the dry season are almost dry. Much paddy is grown, as well as jute. The Barind, a stretch of ground slightly above the general level, used to be covered with forest, now it has brushwood jungle with a few trees.

4. **The Old Delta.**—This is a typical delta but it has been raised by the deposits of silt so that it is no longer covered with flood water in the wet season. The waters of the Ganges no longer pass through the numerous channels, they no longer deposit their load of fertile silt. Instead we find broad swamps called bails. These bails are in many places drained and form fertile paddy land. The most typical part of the delta is between the Hooghly River and the Madhumatti River. In the south are the sundarbans or forest swamps, but the land is gradually being reclaimed and used for growing paddy. Further west is the delta of the numerous streams which flow down from the Chota Nagpur Plateau—of which the Damodar is the most important—and then the land gradually rises towards the plateau; the soil

becomes hard and poor and covered with scrub jungle. But in this extreme western part are found the great coalfields and ironfields of western Bengal—Raniganj, Asansol and Jherria, described in Chapter XXI.

5. **The New Delta and the Surma Valley.**—Here we have a typical delta, covered by a network of rivers, streams and creeks. Every year the land is flooded and fertilized by the silt brought down by the Ganges and Brahmaputra. Boats take the place of carts, there are few roads and few railways. In the rains only the river banks and the artificial mounds covered with houses appear above the water. It is impossible to go from one village to the next, or sometimes from one house to another without a boat or a raft or something which will float. Yet it is a fertile region, producing enormous quantities of rice and jute and inhabited by a dense population. In one place, called the Madhupur Jungle, a slightly higher ridge has prevented the great rivers moving still further eastwards. This ridge is covered with grass or forest jungles.

6. **Crops.**—Let us now look at the crops of the Deltas Region. Notice firstly Fig. 101. The 'forests' which

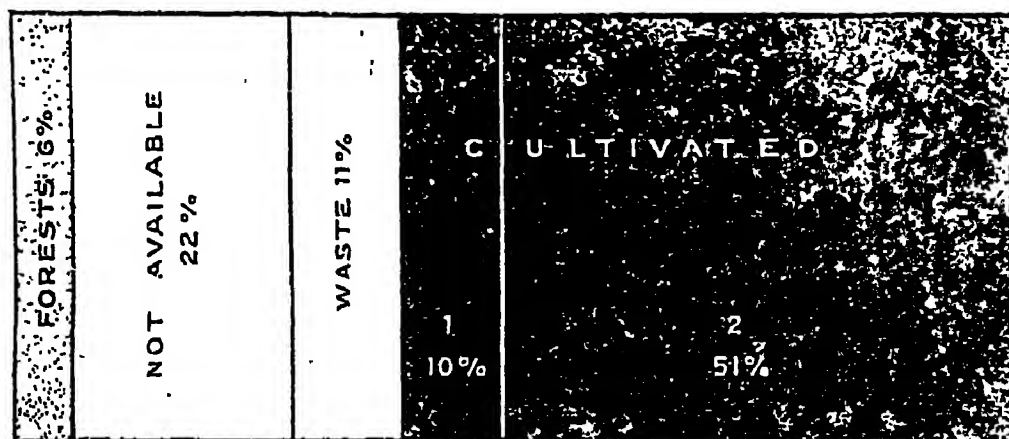


FIG. 101.—Proportion of cultivated land in the Lower Ganges Valley and Delta. 1=Fallow; 2=Sown.

comprise six per cent of the whole area are the Sundarbans—found in the districts of Backergunge, 24-Parganas and Khulna. You will notice that there is more waste land and land not available than in the Middle Ganges Valley or Upper Ganges Valley. This is because of the large area still occupied by swamps, as well as the waste lands of the

Barind, Madhupur Jungle and Western Bengal. Still well over half the whole of the Deltas Region is cultivated. Compare this with the hilly regions. Now study again Fig. 96. Rice is by far the most important crop—it occupies practically three-quarters of the whole cultivated area. As we travelled down the Ganges Valley from the dry western region towards the Delta we noticed the wet zone crop, rice, becoming more and more important and the dry zone crops—wheat, barley, millet, maize and gram becoming less and less important. In the Deltas Region the area occupied by wheat, barley, millet and maize is so small that it cannot be shown on the diagram. A very important new crop appears—jute. Jute is grown for the sake of its strong fibre. Nearly all the sacks and gunny bags in the whole world are made from jute grown in the Deltas Region. Another important crop is oil-seed—linseed, sesamum and rape.

7. **People.**—You have learnt that a natural region must have roughly the same physical features and roughly the same climate throughout. Usually this results in the same vegetation and products being found through the region and often too, the same people. The Deltas Region is an excellent example. Everywhere is flat, everywhere the climate is damp. Rice is the principal crop. Throughout this region too, the inhabitants are nearly all Bengalis and ninety-five out of every 100 people living in the Deltas Region speak Bengali as their native language. The Bengalis are divided into two well-marked groups by their religion, a little less than half are Hindus and about half are Mohammedans. Three quarters of the people are cultivators and engaged mainly in the production of rice or jute, about eight people in a hundred are engaged in industry and five in trade. Naturally the people who are engaged in agriculture want to live near their fields and so we find that ninety-three people out of every 100 live in villages or isolated huts and only seven people in every 100 live in towns. We learnt that in the Dry Region of the Upper Ganges Valley the people live in villages consisting of a collection of houses. In the Deltas Region it is quite different. There are really no villages. Each cultivator builds a house or a hut in the midst of his fields; in very wet parts as in the New Delta he must first build a

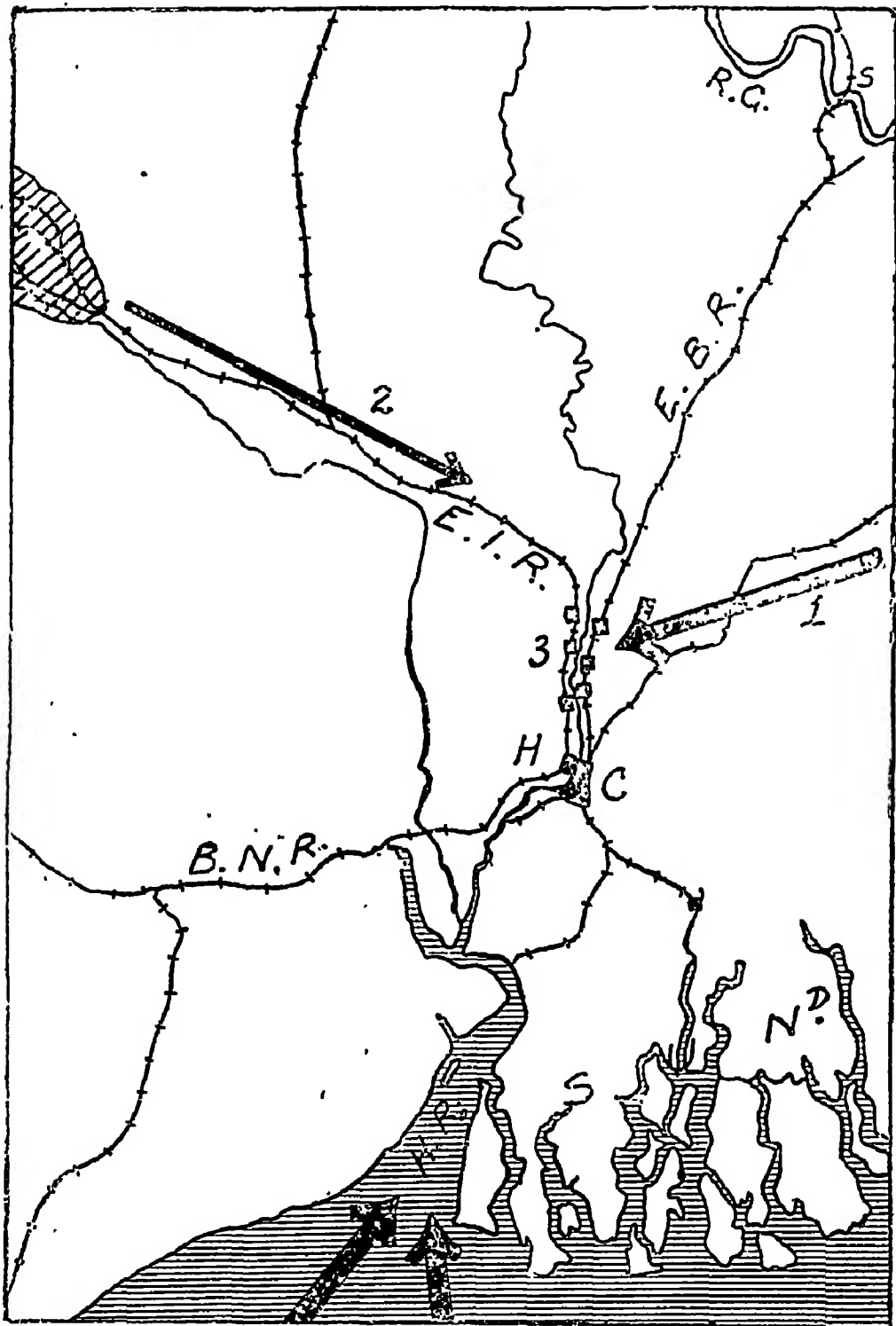


FIG. 102.—The position of Calcutta. (Compare with Fig. 103.) 1= supply of jute and rice; 2=supply of coal from the coalfields 3= the jute mill towns along the River Hooghly. R. G. = Rive Ganges with a bridge near Sara (S); H = Howrah; C = Calcutta H. R. = Hooghly River.

mound on which to place his hut and prevent it from being flooded. Thus the houses or huts are scattered all over the country and most cultivators work their own piece of land.

8. **Towns.**—We have learnt that only seven people out every 100 live in towns and in the whole of the Deltas Region there are only seven towns with a population of more than 50,000. There are really two classes of towns.

(a) The famous old towns of the past, or those which merely act as 'market towns' for the districts, they are old and small and are getting smaller. Murshidabad with 10,000 people is an example.

(b) The industrial and commercial towns, which have grown up within recent years around rice or jute mills. All the largest towns belong to this class.

Calcutta is the largest city in India and the second largest city in the British Empire. It is only one-sixth the size

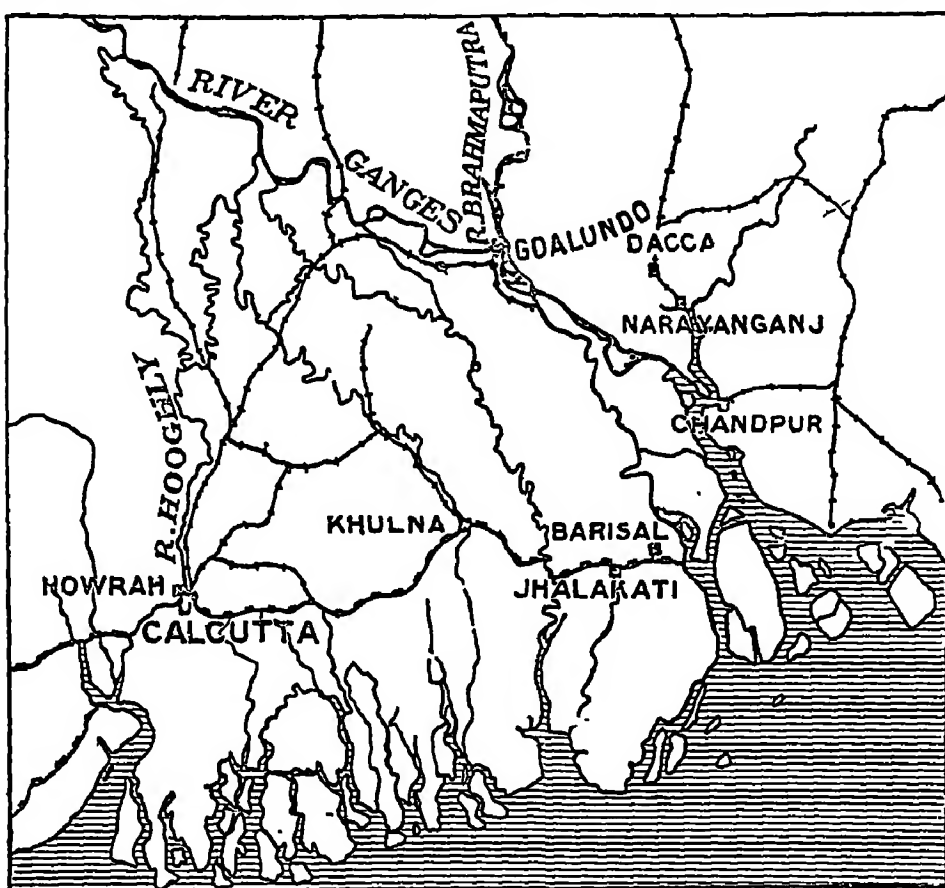


FIG. 103.—Waterways of the Delta. Notice the connection between Calcutta and Barisal by canals, between the Hooghly and the Ganges by a series of channels. Notice how the waterways link up the railways.

of London, but still comes next in size. It was the capital of India until 1912 when the Government moved to Delhi, but Calcutta still forms the 'commercial capital' of India. Although over seventy miles from the sea great ocean steamers can reach its wharves by the River Hooghly. The River Hooghly is a dangerous river because of the 'bore' or tidal wave which rushes up it as a wall of water at high tide. But this bore helps to keep the waterway clear. Notice very carefully from Figs. 100 and 102 how well Calcutta is situated to receive and export the products of the fertile Ganges Valley behind it. A big port can only grow up when there is a rich and fertile district behind it which can produce goods for export and which has a great population requiring other goods. The district or region behind a port, and for which the port serves as a gate to the outside world is called the 'hinterland' of the port. The hinterland of Calcutta includes the great part of the great Ganges Valley. On the opposite side of the River Hooghly and really forming part of Calcutta is Howrah with nearly 200,000 people. It is from Howrah that the railways start which cross India to Bombay, or go to Madras and Southern India, or up the Ganges Valley. A hundred years ago the site of Calcutta was an unhealthy swamp, it has been made into the largest and one of the healthiest cities of India by the labour of man, and the activities of Government.

Dacca is the second largest city in the Deltas Region (counting Howrah and Calcutta together) and has now over 100,000 inhabitants. It is the centre for the rich agricultural regions of Eastern Bengal or the New Delta. *Dacca*, unlike Calcutta, was an important city 300 years ago and an old capital of Bengal.

Outside Calcutta and *Dacca* there are really no big cities or towns. Amongst the largest of the jute mill or rice mill towns which are mainly situated along the River Hooghly are *Bhatpara*, *Titagarh* and *Serampore*, all on the River Hooghly. Besides the towns in which manufacture is carried on there are others which act as collecting stations. *Narayanganj* and *Madaripur* are examples. To these and to similar places the cultivators of the Delta bring their jute and rice. It is collected and sent to the mills in larger boats.

Jhalakati is one of the important centres of Eastern Bengal and the centre of the betelnut trade. *Sylhet*, the centre of the fertile Surma Valley of Assam has only 17,000 people.

In the western mining region you should notice *Asansol* and *Raniganj*, growing centres of the coal trade and railway junctions. These two towns lie outside the Delta proper. (See Chapter XXI.)

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Compare the positions of Calcutta and Dacca. Do you think Dacca will ever become as important as Calcutta? Give reasons.
2. What is meant by 'hinterland'? Which has the more important hinterland, Calcutta or Chittagong, and why?
3. In what ways do Central Bengal (Old Delta) and Eastern Bengal (New Delta) differ from one another.
4. Explain why Calcutta has become the most important port of India, although it was once a swamp.
5. Compare the products of the Deltas Region with those of the Upper Ganges Valley. Why do they differ?
6. Describe the climate of Calcutta or Dacca.
7. What is jute? Where is it grown and what are its uses?

CHAPTER XXIII

✓ BOMBAY—SIND

I. THE PRESIDENCY OF BOMBAY

Next to Burma, the Presidency of Bombay is the largest province of India. Many parts of it are, however, thinly peopled. The Presidency is very irregular in shape. It includes the great region known as Sind which is really the lower part of the Indus Valley and part of the Plain of Hindustan. The Peninsula of Kathiawar is made up of a large number of small native states whilst the important native state of Baroda is composed of several isolated tracts of country north of Bombay. The Presidency runs a considerable distance down the west coast of India and also includes a large section of the Plateau of Peninsula India. It is thus obvious that the large and irregular-shaped Presidency of Bombay will fall into a number of natural regions. We can distinguish:—

- (a) Sind or the Lower Indus Valley, a very dry plain.
- (b) Gujarat, including Kathiawar and Baroda, an irregular and variable natural region.
- (c) The West Coast Region, a very wet region which lies between the Western Ghats and the sea.
- (d) The Deccan Lavas or Black Cotton Soil Region, forming part of the plateau.

II. THE LOWER INDUS VALLEY OR SIND

1. **General Features.**—Sind has often been called the 'Unhappy Valley'. But when compared with some of the natural regions we study in this book, such as Baluchistan and the Thar Desert, it is a fortunate land. In the days of old, when India was invaded by the Greeks and the Arabs; the invaders had marched for long weary days and weeks through the desert wastes of Persia and Baluchistan and they thought the Valley of the Indus a most promising country.

Sind consists of a broad dry alluvial plain stretching from

the edge of the Baluchistan Plateau on the west to the Thar Desert on the east. Running through the centre of the valley is its life and soul—the Indus River. Just as Egypt is the 'Gift of the Nile' so is Sind the 'Gift of the Indus'. In Chapter XIX we learnt something of the Indus River in the Punjab Plains. When it leaves the Punjab the river flows through a narrow rocky gorge. This gorge is important for several reasons. It separates the Punjab Plains from the Plains of Sind. The mighty river has here been crossed by a railway bridge (Rohri). It is here, just below the town of Sukkur, that the rocky bed of the river affords a good foundation for one of the largest irrigation dams in the world.

Sind is a very dry region. Look back at Fig. 39 and you will notice that part of it gets less than 5 inches of rain in the year. A little more falls near the coast, but it is still very, very dry. Sind would be quite a desert, if it were not for the River Indus from which water can be obtained to nourish the crops. You have learnt that the Indus is fed by the melting of the snows in the Himalaya Mountains far away and is not affected by the small rainfall in the lower part of its valley. Although Sind is *inside* the Mountain Wall of India, it is very little affected by the South-West Monsoon. The Delta of the Indus is not very far from the dry lands of Arabia and North-East Africa and the South-West Monsoon has not blown very far over the sea. It has not had time to gather very much moisture and even when it reaches Sind there are no mountains to cause it to rise and give up its moisture. Instead it blows towards the still hotter and thirstier plains of the Punjab.

2. **Irrigation.**—The rainfall in Sind is too small for crops to be grown without irrigation. For ages past irrigation has been practised in Sind, but it is different from that about which we have learned in the Punjab and also in Baluchistan. The irrigation in Sind is by means of 'inundation canals'. Canals are dug from the banks of the River Indus through the flat alluvial plain. They are filled with water when the river is in flood but later in the year they become dry. These canals do not, then, have water in them all the year round like the larger canals of the Punjab do. Study Fig. 104 and notice the area irrigated by the flood canals from the Indus.

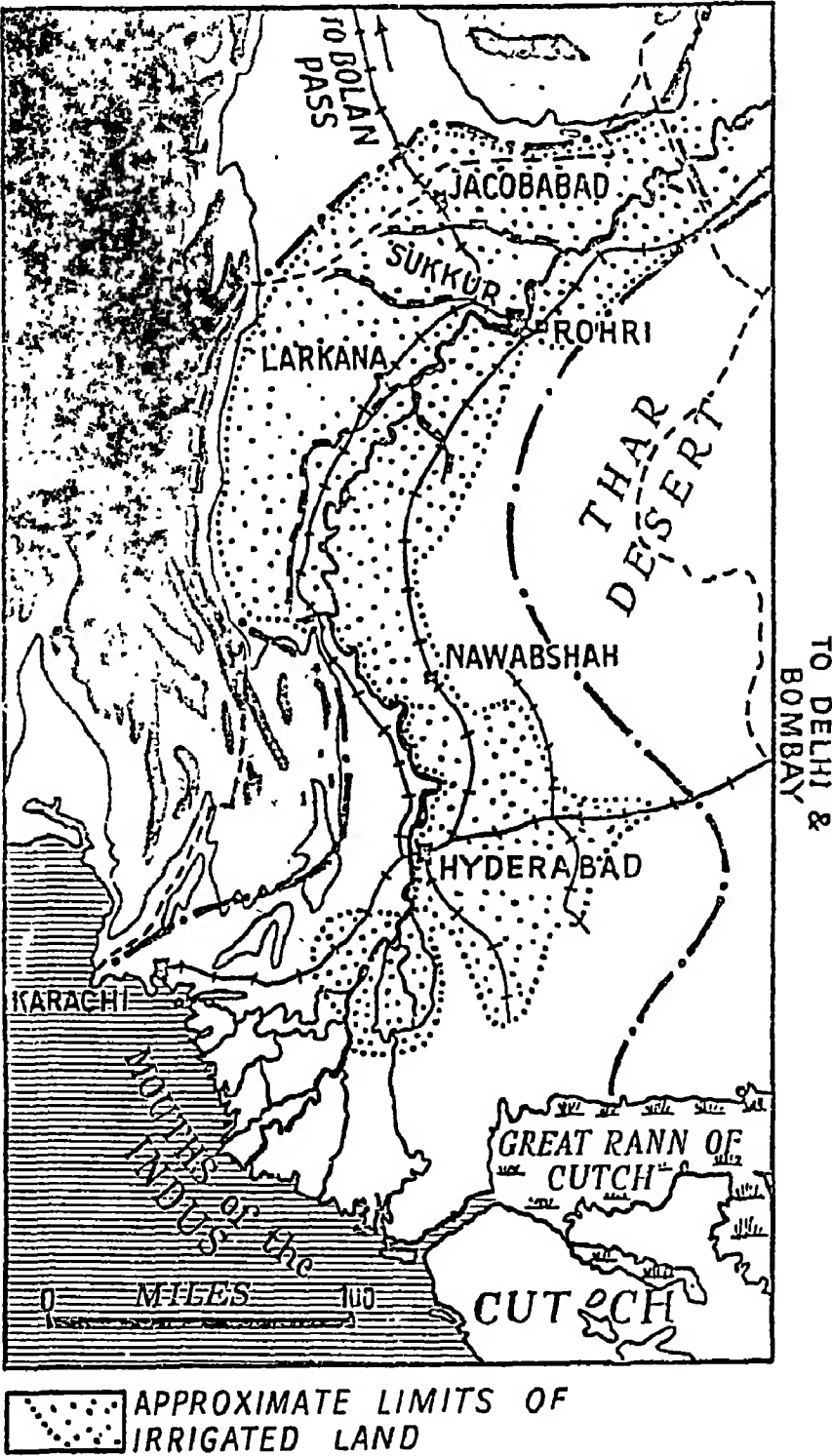


FIG. 104.—The Lower Indus Valley.

Away from the irrigated land, Sind is a lonely, barren desert. Here and there are the remains of canals no longer used, the remains of cities which no longer exist. There are deep dry valleys which were once occupied by branches of the Indus. Probably the main stream of the Indus once flowed much further to the east than it does now, and emptied itself into the Great Rann of Cutch. The old course is marked by a broad valley, but quite dry. The Rann of Cutch is an interesting region. Look at its position on Fig. 104. It was once an inland sea but it was gradually filled up by mud and sand (alluvium) brought down by the rivers. It is no longer an arm of the sea but merely a marshy area, almost dry in the Hot Season. It is still being filled up by sand blown from the Thar Desert and soon it will be dry, barren desert.

Look again at Fig. 104 and notice that the Delta of the Indus is not marked as irrigated. Other rivers in India have deltas—like the Ganges and the Irrawaddy—and their deltas are rich rice growing regions thickly populated. There is excellent pasture in parts of the Indus Delta, but much of the Delta of the Indus, however, is a useless waste region, almost uninhabited.

Near the coast it is flooded by the waters of the river and sea in the Hot Season, and in the Cold Season is a waste inhabited only by wild birds. Further inland is a strip of desert where once flourished cities and ports.

3. **The Sukkur Scheme.**—A very great change will soon take place in Sind. In Chapter XIX you learnt of the great canal systems which have brought so much wealth and prosperity to the Punjab. For many years past there has been a great scheme to replace the poor 'inundation canals' of Sind by a great system of permanent canals with water in them all the year. This scheme, known as the Sukkur or Lloyd Barrage Scheme is one of the largest works for irrigation ever attempted. A great dam or weir has been built across the River Indus below the town of Sukkur and the water of the Indus can now be stored up to fill a great series of canals, stretching right along the Lower Indus Valley. Study Fig. 108 carefully and notice where the canals have been made or are being made.

4. **Crops.**—Now let us look at the agriculture of Sind. Fig. 105 shows you the proportion of land which is cultivated,

and Fig. 106 shows you the crops which are grown. Wheat, millet, and cotton are the most important. Fig. 107 shows you the proportion of irrigated land in the

PERCENTAGE	NOT AVAILABLE 40 %	WASTE 21 %	CULTIVATED	
			21 %	2 16 %

FIG. 105.—Cultivated land, Lower Indus Valley.

Lower Indus Valley. There is so little rain that scarcely any 'dry' crops can be grown.

RICE 25 %	WHEAT 12 %	MILLET 34 %	OTHER FOODS 9 %	OIL SEEDS 6 %	COTTON 7 %	OTHER CROPS
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FIG. 106.—Crops of the Lower Indus Valley.

5. Towns.—In the days of old the ports of Sind were small towns in the delta but they are now entirely replaced by the great port of Karachi. Karachi is situated to the

IRRIGATED 75 % BY GOVT. CANALS	BY WELLS
--------------------------------------	----------

FIG. 107.—Proportion of irrigated land, Lower Indus Valley.

west of the delta and on the extreme west of the natural region. You will learn that Karachi is the natural outlet for the whole of the Punjab as well as Sind and is rapidly

growing in importance. From Karachi the railway runs to a point, at the head of the Indus Delta, where the Indus can be bridged. On the east of the river is the important town

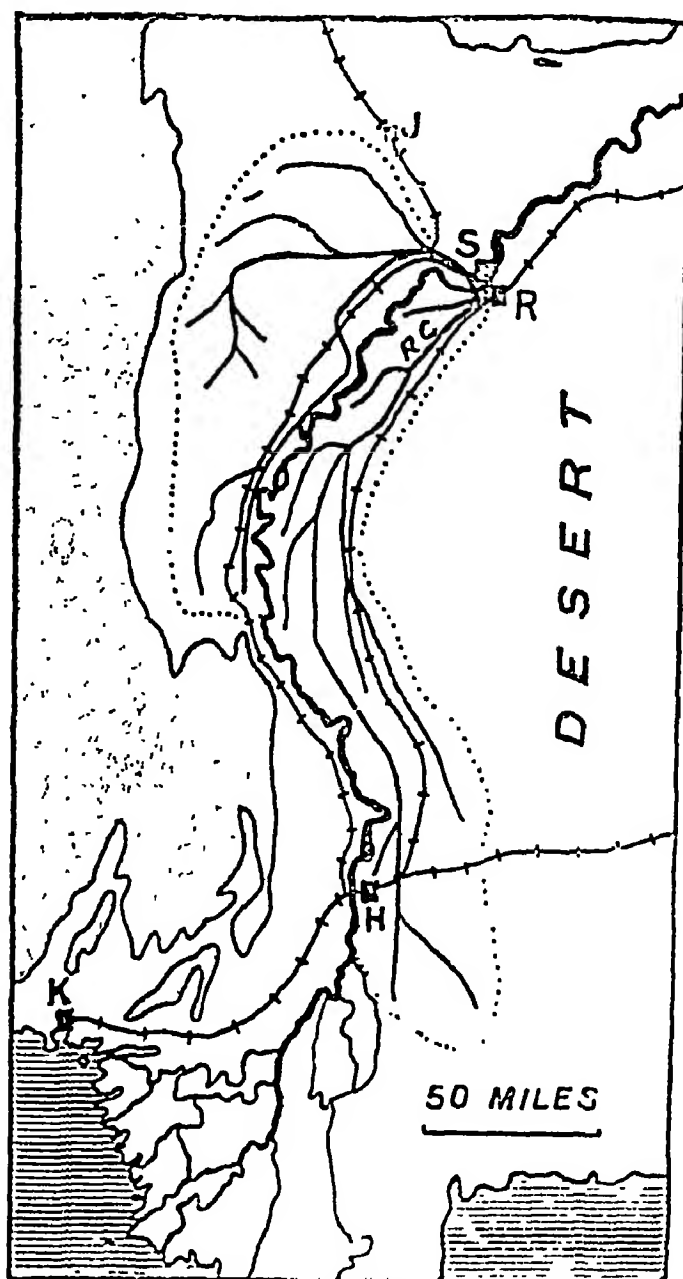


FIG. 108.—The Sukkur Irrigation Project.

of Hyderabad. From here there are two railways. One strikes eastwards right across the desert into Rajputana and on to Delhi. The other follows up the valley to Rohri and on to the Punjab. At Rohri there is another bridge

across the Indus Gorge to Sukkur. Notice also that another line from Karachi follows up the western side of the river and connects with Quetta and Baluchistan, through the Bolan Pass.

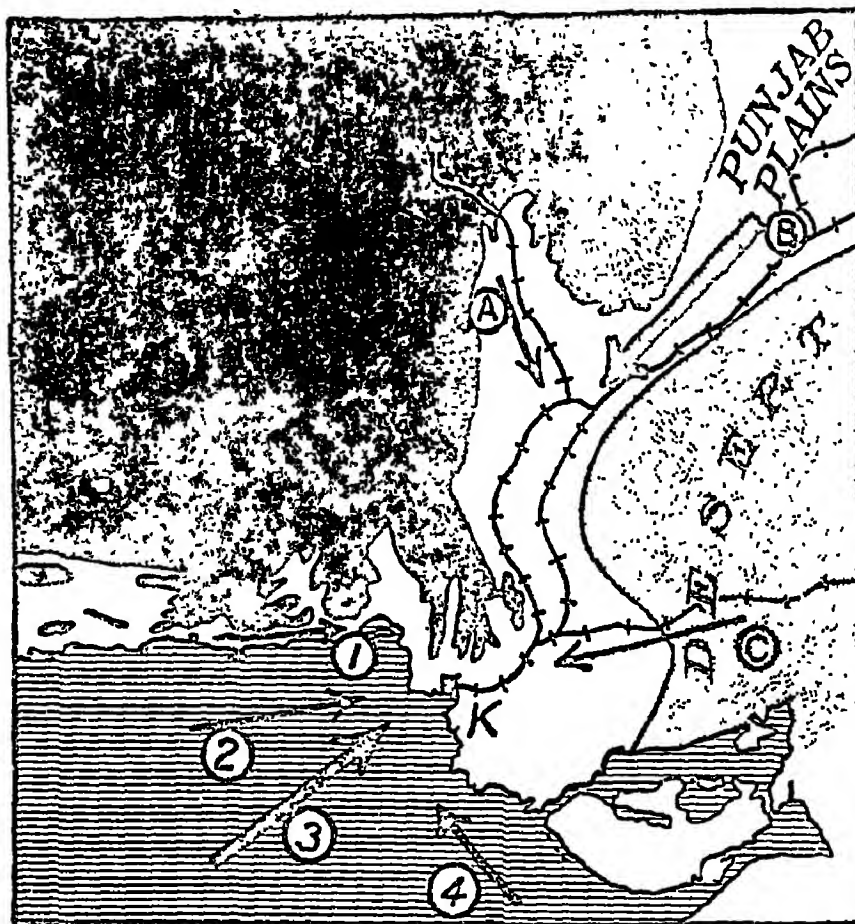


FIG. 109.—The position of Karachi. Land over 1,000 feet, black ; desert, dotted.

Karachi is the great wheat port of India exporting the wheat of the Punjab. A great amount of cotton is also exported. Here is an interesting fact. Bombay also exports much cotton, but Bombay also has a large number of cotton mills where cotton cloths are made. Karachi exports cotton but cannot have cotton mills because the climate is too dry for cotton goods to be manufactured. The air must be a little damp for the proper working of the cotton fibres. The air in Lancashire (England) is just damp enough and so Lancashire manufactures some of the

finest cotton goods in the world. This is an excellent example of the ' Climate Control ' of man's activities.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Write a short account of the different kinds of irrigation in India.
2. Describe the climate of Sind.
3. Compare and contrast the Lower Indus Valley with Baluchistan.
4. Do you think Sind will increase in importance? Give your reasons.
5. Draw a sketch-map showing the importance of the position of Sukkur.

CHAPTER XXIV

1. BOMBAY (GUJARAT) AND BARODA ¹

1. General Features.—There are some regions which vary so much from place to place that they ought really to be



FIG. 110.—The Gujarat Region.

divided up into a large numbers of very small regions. On the whole this region, Gujarat, is a lowland region, less than

¹ Comprising the Gujarat Division of Bombay Presidency, with Kathiawar and Cutch; the whole of the State of Baroda and adjoining native states of the Bombay Presidency.

200 A GEOGRAPHY OF INDIA, BURMA AND CEYLON

1,000 feet above sea-level, but has numerous small hills. It lies between the highlands of the Rajput Upland Region and the sea and is really a coastal region. The great Peninsula of Kathiawar makes it much broader than the other coastal regions.

At the southern end Gujarat joins the very wet West Coast Region. At the southern end Gujarat is, therefore, a wet region but it quickly gets drier as one goes northwards. At the northern end it joins the Thar Desert and so is very dry indeed.

It will be simplest to divide the region up into five parts—South, Central and Northern Gujarat, Kathiawar and Cutch and briefly describe each.

2. South Gujarat is the wettest part of the region and joins the West Coast Region. Along the coast the climate is equable and healthy. There is a narrow strip where the soil is salt and poor and the water brackish; behind this is a broad strip of rich black soil very suitable for rice and the best kind of cotton, sugar-cane and many other crops. The land is thickly populated, the people rich and flourishing. Farther inland hills appear, covered with forest. Forest and thick jungle cover large areas. In these inland parts the soil is poorer, cotton and poor rice are the most important crops. The eastern parts of South Gujarat are still wilder, more than half is covered with dense unhealthy forests inhabited by primitive tribes, and the whole is only thinly peopled. Try and remember the remarkable change as you go inland from the coast.

3. Central Gujarat is much drier, and the 40-inch rainfall line passes through it. Rice can be grown on the low lying stretches of alluvium bordering the rivers, but millet and cotton are more important. The black cotton soil is found in the south. The eastern parts are more hilly and much covered by scrub. The climate in this part of Gujarat is healthier and so the area is more thickly populated than South Gujarat.

4. Northern Gujarat is still drier, and is on the whole a flat region with a poor sandy soil. Wherever the soil is richer the population is dense and much millet is grown; the poorer, sandy parts are inhabited by primitive peoples such as the Kolis, who in times past used to plunder their richer neighbours. Irrigation is not very important since

few of the streams flow all the year. Cultivation is protected by tanks in this region.

5. Kathiawar is a large peninsula suffering from a precarious rainfall. In the centre is a group of forest covered hills—the Gir Forest—among which most of the rivers have their source. These forests yield valuable timber. A large part of the rest of Kathiawar is a barren land of very little use. Over large areas the bare rocks rise to the surface and are not covered by any soil; between the rocky ridges are barren, sandy valleys. Here and there are a few more favoured spots, almost like oases in the desert. The people and their villages are concentrated in these richer areas, such as around Damnagar, or in the cotton growing tracts near Dhari. Wherever irrigation is possible in Kathiawar, wheat becomes an important crop. Porbandar Stone, a limestone much used for building in Bombay,—is quarried along the coast. There are salt deposits along the coast and lime which may become a source of wealth.

Politically Kathiawar consists of a large number of small native states. The principal towns are capitals of the states.

6. Cutch is surrounded on three sides by the great marshy useless tract known as the Rann of Cutch, and on the remaining sides by the sea. Like Kathiawar it is for the most part a barren, rocky, treeless and useless country, still drier than Kathiawar. It might almost be counted as part of the Thar Desert which lies to the north.

7. Communications.—Running through Gujarat from south to north is the main line of the B.B. and C.I.R.—from Bombay to Delhi. The most important towns—Daman, Surat, Baroda and Ahmadabad lie on this line. From Ahmadabad a branch runs into Kathiawar.

Daman in Southern Gujarat is a Portuguese possession.

Surat is a large and important town in Southern Gujarat, near the mouth of the Tapti River. Before the rise of Bombay, it was the leading town of the West Coast. The first factory of the East India Company was at Surat. The town has now nothing like its old importance.

Baroda, the capital of the important State of Baroda, has modern cotton mills. It is also a large railway junction.

Cambay and other towns round the Gulf of Cambay are less important than formerly. The great cotton mills of the towns such as Bombay are replacing the small local industries and there is no longer an export trade from the small sea ports of the Gulf. Instead the trade goes to the great port of Bombay.

Ahmadabad is the great collecting centre of Northern Gujarat and stands high amongst the important cities of India. It has mills and is also a railway junction.

The towns of Kathiawar exist as collecting centres in the more fertile spots of the Peninsula.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Draw a sketch-map of this region showing the parts into which it may be divided.
2. Write an account, illustrated by sketch-maps, of the climate of Gujarat.
3. What is meant by the Climate Control of agriculture? How is the control seen in Gujarat?

CHAPTER XXV

✓ BOMBAY (THE WEST COAST REGION)¹

1. **General Features.**—The West Coast Region is the narrow strip between the crest of the Western Ghats or Sahyadri Mountains and the sea. The Western Ghats are, you will remember, only the western edge of the great Plateau of Peninsular India and so the West Coast Region is the strip between the edge of the plateau and the Arabian Sea. The strip of plain between the mountains and the sea is very narrow ; it is broadest in the north near the Narbada and Tapti Rivers and in the extreme south in Travancore where it lies between the Cardamom Hills and the sea. There is only one important island on this coast and that is the island on which the town of Bombay has been built. Notice that the coast is very straight. There are few bays which can be used as harbours and so there are few ports. Indeed there is only one really big port and that is Bombay. There is another reason why there should not be more ports. A great port cannot grow up unless behind it there is a large district full of people, who grow or manufacture things for export, and who can buy large quantities of goods brought by sea from other places. Behind the towns on the west coast there is a narrow plain, backed by high mountains which are very difficult to cross. Although the narrow plain is fertile and thickly populated it is too narrow to give rise to a large port. You will learn later that there is one place, Bombay, from which the mountains can be crossed fairly easily.

2. **Climate.**—The West Coast Region is a very wet region—nearly the whole of it has more than 80 inches of

¹ The whole natural region of the west coast comprises the Konkan Region of Bombay Presidency (Districts of Thana, Kolaba, Ratnagiri and North Kanara), the Portuguese possession of Goa, the Districts of South Kanara and Malabar in the Madras Presidency and the States of Cochin and Travancore.

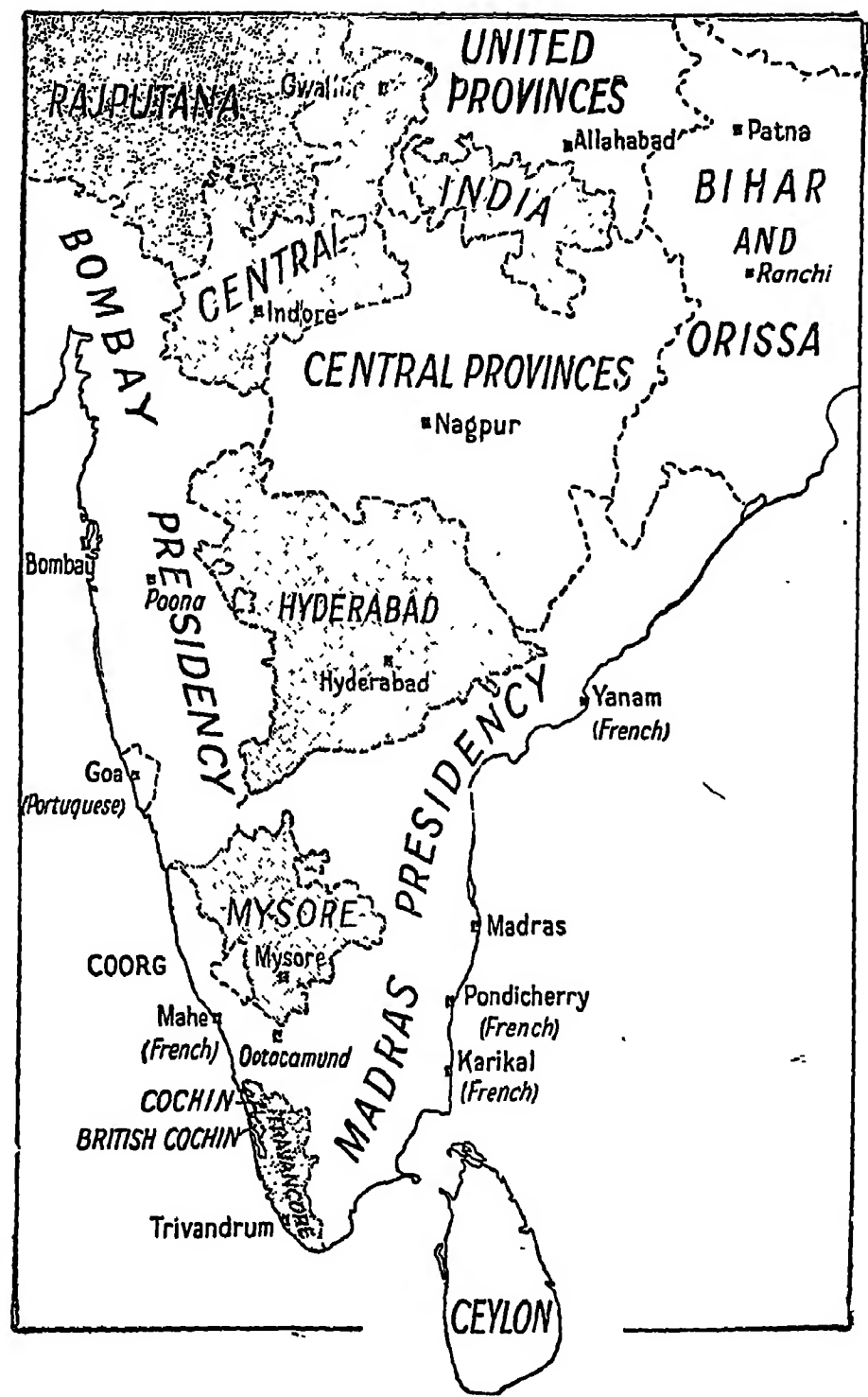


FIG. 111.—Political map of Peninsular India.

rain in a year. Nowhere else in Peninsular India is the rainfall so heavy as it is in this natural region.

Study this table.

Place	Rainfall in one year
Bombay	80 inches.
Matheran (on the mountain slopes)	208 "
Ratnagiri (on the coast)	96 "
Kumta "	142 "
Irrikur (on the mountain slopes)	154 "
Calicut (on the coast)	119 "
Alleppey ,,	115 "

Compare this with what is said about the rainfall of the other coastal strip regions. If you look at Figs. 33 and 41 you will see that the rain-bearing South-West Monsoon blows directly against the mountains of the west coast. Nearly all the rain falls when this wind is blowing, that is from May to October.

When we were studying temperature in Chapter IV, we noticed that places in the dry parts of the plateau have a 'wide annual range' of temperature. That is, the difference between the hottest day and the coolest day is considerable. In Lahore we found the difference between the average temperature in January and the average in July is more than 36 degrees, and between the hottest and coldest months (January and June) it is as much as 39 degrees. We noticed that in other parts of India, nearer the sea, the range of temperature is less since the sea keeps the land cool in the hot weather, and warm in the cold weather. In places where there is much rain, there is more cloud to hide the sun and these places do not get so hot in the hot weather. We should expect, therefore, that since the West Coast Region is a region near the sea and has a heavy rainfall that the range of temperature will be small. This is the case. In Bombay it is only 10 degrees, whilst in the south it is even less than 5 degrees. In the hot weather the cool sea breezes that we read of at the beginning of Chapter V make the climate of the Coastal Strip much more pleasant than that of inland places.

3. **Physical Features.**—If you look at Fig. 14 in Chapter III you will see that part of the Western Coastal Strip is built up of alluvium. Look at your atlas and notice the large number of small rivers which flow down from the high

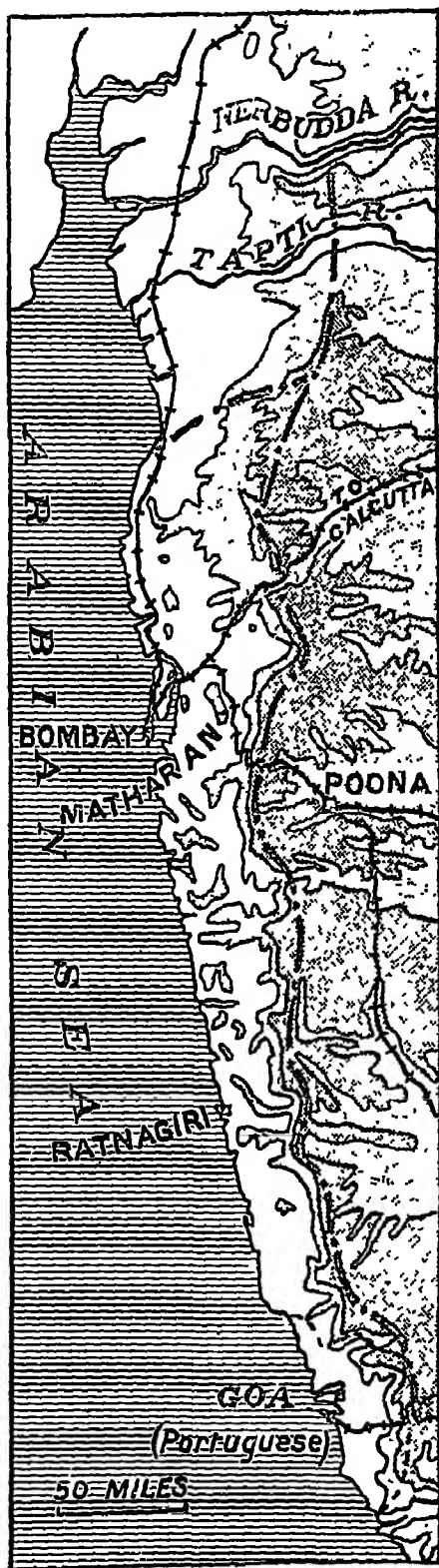


FIG. 112.—The West Coast Region.

Western Ghats to the sea. Each of these rivers brings down mud, sand and stones which are spread out at the foot of the hills and thus the Coastal Strip is being added to. Notice also that the South-West Monsoon blows against the West Coast, and is often so strong that great waves are formed in the sea. These waves pile masses of sand against the coast and help to build it up. Although the coastal strip is so narrow—it is only 30 or 40 miles wide—we find we can divide it up into three narrower strips:—

- (a) The steep slope of the Western Ghats.
- (b) The flat alluvial land.
- (c) The sand dunes piled up by the sea.

The steep slopes of the Western Ghats and the smaller foothills are usually clothed with luxuriant tropical forest. Many of the forests are evergreen for the climate is always hot and steamy and there are very many different kinds of trees. One of the most important trees, however, is teak and the working

of the teak forests is an important industry from Bombay to Travancore. The teak flourishes where the rainfall is not too great and so is not found in the very wettest positions. The many short rivers on the west coast are not much use for boats, they are too swift and rocky but they can be used for floating the logs of timber from the forests to the coast. One day these swift rivers may be used for power. They will be 'harnessed' and made to work machines which make electricity. Much bamboo is also obtained in the forests and used for house building. Towards the south many rubber plantations are being formed.

The flat alluvial land forms the most important part of the West Coast Region. The water of the small streams from the hills is prevented from reaching the sea by the sand dunes and so spreads out to form large shallow lagoons. Many of the lagoons or backwaters open out to the sea and some are deep enough to form harbours for native craft. The banks of the lagoons are often lined with coconut plantations. Here too lie the numerous villages and every possible piece of land is sown with paddy interrupted at intervals by groves of areca nut. The villages are different from those in other parts of India, for each hut has its own garden with coconut or areca nut trees and the separate huts may be some distance apart. In olden days India was famous for its spices and the cultivation of the pepper plant is still important along the Malabar Coast (in the extreme south of Bombay) on the borders of the forest.

The coast itself is largely covered with groves of coconut trees. At intervals there are marshy mangrove swamps.

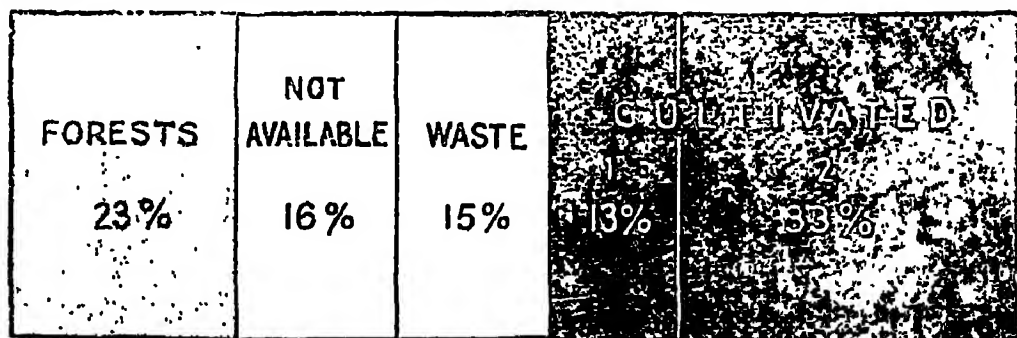


FIG. 113.—Cultivated land, West Coast Region.

4. Crops.—If you look at Fig. 113 you will see that

forests cover nearly a quarter of this region. A large proportion is occupied by marshes, swamps, lagoons, etc. and is 'not available'. But nearly a half of the whole region is cultivated. Although the West Coast Region is thickly populated there is still a fair amount of waste

R I C E 50%	R A G I	OTHER FOODS 10%	C O C O N U T S 6%	F O D D E R	V E G E T A B L E S	O T H E R C R O P S

FIG. 114.—Crops of the West Coast Region.

land. Now turn to Fig. 114. Notice that rice is by far the most important crop. It covers half of the whole cultivated area. Notice that coconuts cover 6 per cent of the area.

5. **People.**—The West Coast Region is thickly populated. In the northern part which lies in Bombay there are over two hundred people to the square mile. Three-quarters of the people are engaged in cultivation. Nearly all the rice which they grow is required for food and there is little left for export. Many of the rice cultivators in the south are backward jungle tribes. The coconut palm is of great importance to the inhabitants. Their huts are thatched with its leaves, its wood is used for building or fire wood, the outer husk of the nuts furnishes a strong fibre used for making mats and ropes. The preparation of the fibre or 'coir-picking' is one of the most important village industries of the west coast. The dried kernel of the nut, called copra, is a valuable article of export. From copra, coconut oil is obtained. The juice of the coconut is drunk either unfermented or fermented and is made into jaggery or distilled into a strong spirit called arrack.

6. **Towns.**—By far the most important town in this region is Bombay. Going southwards from Bombay we pass the Portuguese possession of Goa which has a good harbour, to the small town of Kumta with its lagoon harbour used by small ships.

Bombay deserves a special description since it is the second largest city and the second largest port in India and has more than a million inhabitants. It has a fine harbour formed by an enclosed bay and the city itself is built on an island at the entrance (see Fig. 115). Fortunately Bombay is situated at the northern end of the West Coast Region

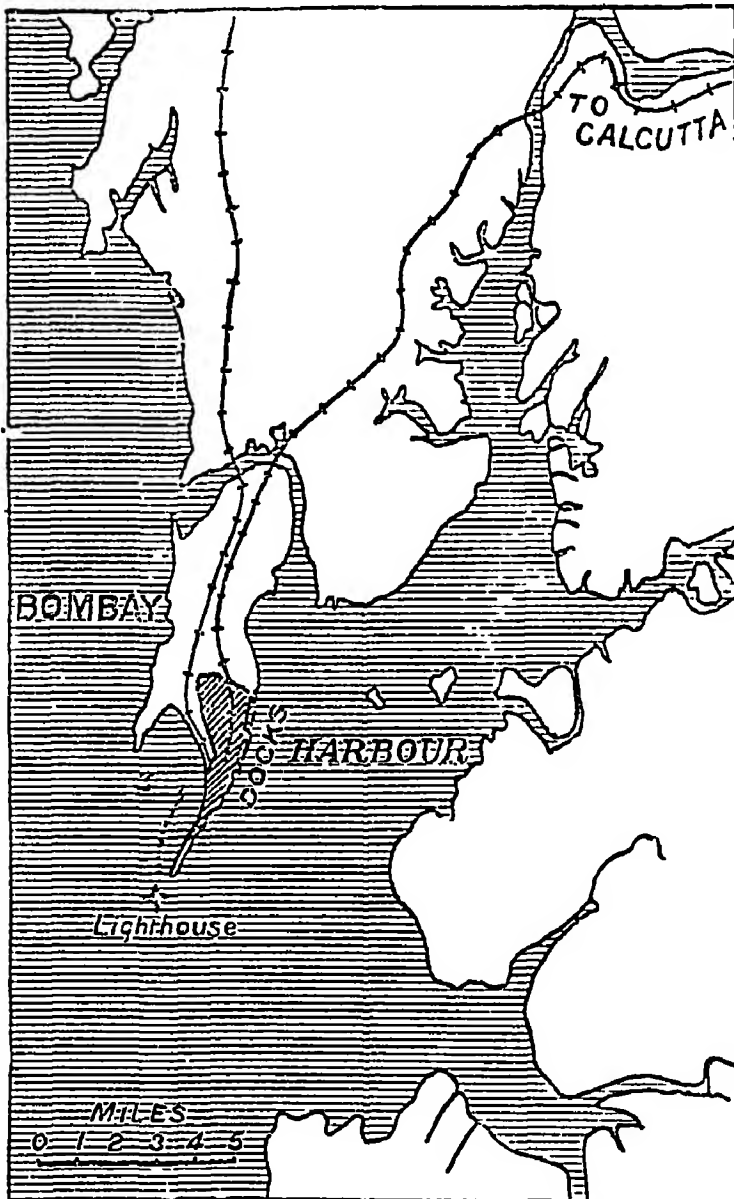


FIG. 115.—Sketch-map of Bombay Harbour.

where the Western Ghats can be easily crossed. Look at Fig. 159 and notice the routes leading out of Bombay. Behind Bombay are the rich cotton growing lands (see Fig. 47). The raw cotton is sent to Bombay where there are many large cotton mills. Study Figs. 115 and 159 carefully.

They will help you to understand why Bombay has become so important.

Before we leave this region there is one point to notice. There is no railway running through its length.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Describe the climate of Bombay.
2. Write a short essay on the coconut palm.
3. Why is there no big port on the west coast, south of Bombay?
4. Describe the advantages of the position of Bombay.
5. Describe the geology and the soils of the West Coast Region.

CHAPTER XXVI

1. BOMBAY (THE DECCAN LAVAS REGION OR THE BLACK SOIL REGION) ¹

1. **General Features.**—It is necessary to divide the great Plateau of Peninsular India into several parts. The north-western part which we are now going to study has one feature in common over nearly the whole of it. Long ages ago it was covered by great masses of molten lava, poured out from fissures or cracks in the earth's crust. These great sheets of lava used to be known as the Deccan Trap and you will sometimes find this natural region called the Deccan Trap Region. Geologists tell us that it is one of the largest spreads of lava in the whole world—covering nearly 200,000 square miles. Only in a few places, such as the Narbada Valley, have the rivers cut through and exposed the platform of old hard crystalline rocks below the lavas. The lavas have decomposed over most of the area to form a fine rich dark soil, very suitable for cotton and hence the name Black Soil or Cotton Soil Region. On Fig. 116, the Deccan Lavas Region is shown covering nearly the whole area where the lavas is found. But the important Satpura Range, and further north the Vindhya Range, cross this region. The area to the north is closely connected with the Rajput Upland Region and can be regarded as part of it. Like the rest of the Plateau of Peninsular India the Deccan Lavas Region slopes gently from west to east, from the crest of the Western Ghats towards the Bay of Bengal. So we find most of the rivers, the Godavari and its tributaries, tributaries of the Kistna and Mahanadi all flow towards the east. But north of the Ajanta Range the country changes completely. The hills run east and west, and between them are the great westerly flowing rivers, the Tapti and Narbada, which have carved out deep troughs.

¹ The whole Deccan Lavas Region comprises roughly the part of Bombay east of the Ghats, except Dharwar, the whole of Berar, the western halves of Hyderabad, Central Provinces and Central India.

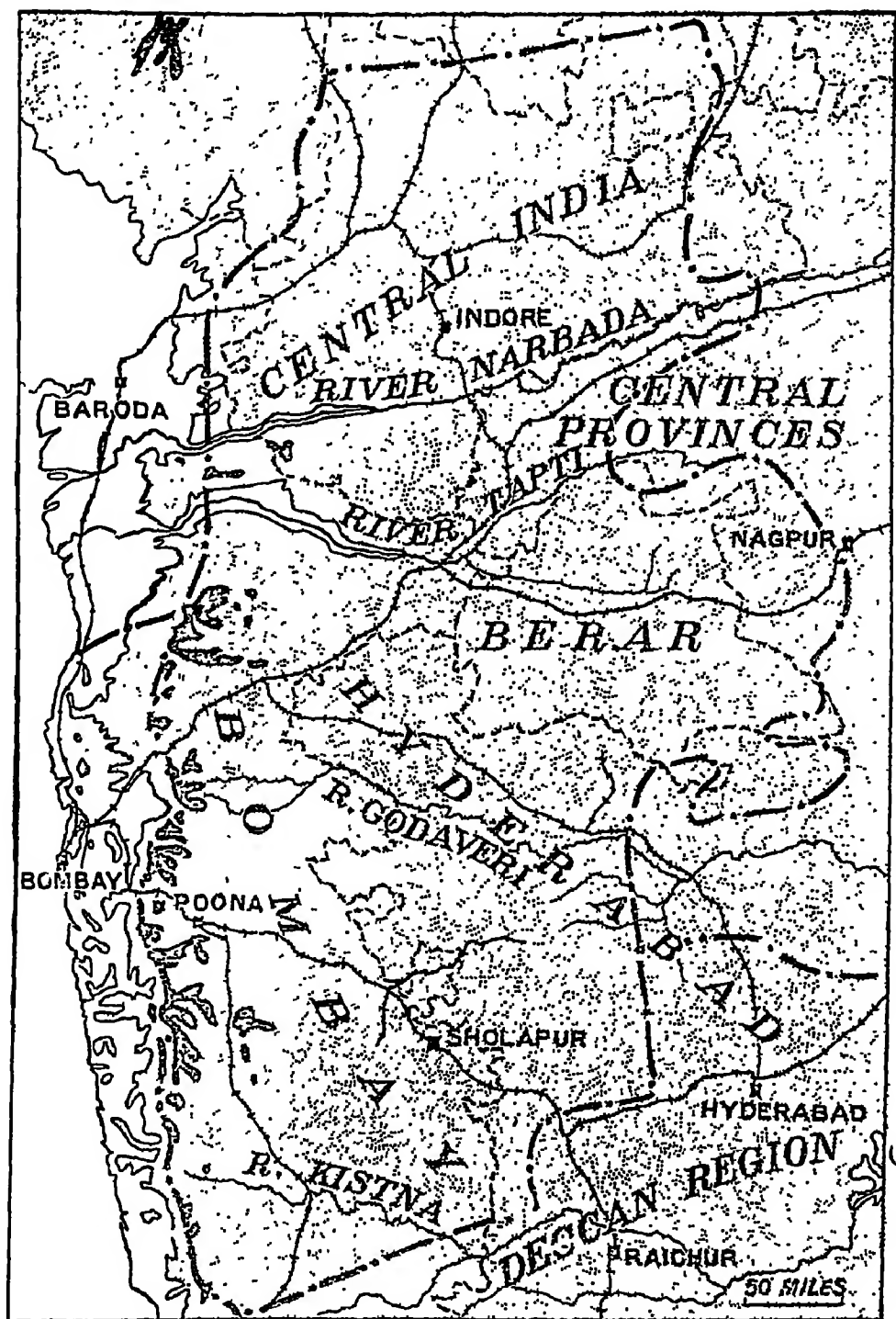


FIG. 116.—The Deccan Lavas Region.

All this natural region—except strips in the Tapi and Narmada Valleys—is more than 500 feet above sea-level.

Most of it is more than 1,000 feet and there are numerous areas over 2,000 feet.

2. **Climate.**—Unlike the last region, the Deccan Lavas Region is in the Rain Shadow of the Western Ghats and nearly the whole area gets less than 40 inches of rain annually. There is a narrow strip, forming the eastern slopes just below the crest of the Ghats, which is wetter, and again towards the north-west there is a region of heavier rainfall. The driest parts are in the centre of the natural region. Much of this region is far from the sea and so there is a marked range of temperature.

3. **Crops.**—Now let us look at the uses to which the land is put. The soil in this natural region is very rich and so

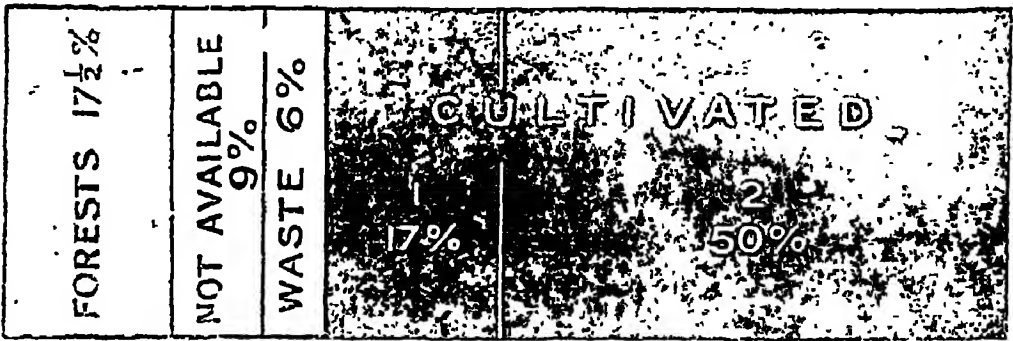


FIG. 117.—Cultivated Land, Deccan Lavas Region.

although it is a very dry region only a very, very little is wasted. Fig. 117 shows you that more than two-thirds is

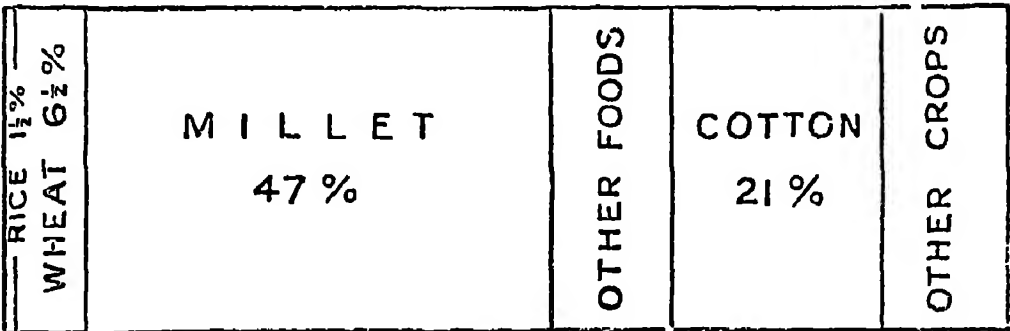


FIG. 118.—Crops of the Deccan Lavas Region.

cultivated. On the hill slopes in the damper places the driest parts (as in Hyderabad) have very little forest. Now look at the crops which are grown. Fig. 118 shows

you at once that the people do not eat rice ; their staple food is millet. In the dry regions of India there are now two principal food grains, wheat and millet. Wheat is the most nourishing grain in the world. It has become the staple food of the people in dry regions like the Punjab and the Upper Ganges Valley. In this part of India, the Deccan Lavas Region, the people do not yet live on wheat, but many of them like it very much and are growing more of it. A large quantity is grown in the Narbada Valley.

The part of India we are studying now is the great cotton growing region. Look at Fig. 47 where cotton producing areas are shown. See how thickly together the dots are placed in this region. The United States produce more cotton than any other country in the world but India comes next. A very large proportion is grown on the soils of the Deccan Lava, especially in Berar.

Most of the cotton grown is native Indian cotton. The better, American cotton requires irrigated land as in the Punjab. Although India is second in the world's production of cotton, there are many ways in which the cotton crop might be improved, especially as regards yield per acre. In some countries, such as part of the United States, the amount obtained from each acre is more than double what it is in India. Look at the map and notice how conveniently the cotton growing country is situated for sending its cotton to Bombay. There are many mills at Bombay where cotton goods are manufactured and large quantities of raw cotton are exported.

4. People.—Although such a large part of the area we are studying is cultivated, not very many people live in this region. There are only about 150 people to the square mile. You see they have to work hard and cultivate a large piece of ground before they can grow enough to feed themselves. The towns of the region are really collecting centres, where the cotton is collected and put on the railways to be sent to Bombay. Many of them have now cotton mills of their own and are becoming industrial centres. The people over the greater part of this natural region speak Marathi ; indeed the western half of Hyderabad, which also belongs to this natural region, is called Marathwara.

Poona lies near the crest of the Western Ghats, commanding one of the gaps or gateways down to Bombay. It is cooler at Poona in the hills than at Bombay and so Poona has been made the Hot Weather Capital of Bombay Presidency.

Sholapur is an important centre further south.

Nearly the whole of this region forms part of the hinterland of the port of Bombay and the railways all radiate from Bombay as a centre.

CHAPTER XXVII

MADRAS

I. THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY

Among the Provinces of India, the Presidency of Madras comes next in size after Burma and Bombay, but it is much more thickly populated than either. The Presidency has grown up round the famous old centre of the East India Company, Fort St. George, which is now known as Madras. Like Bombay, the Presidency has an irregular shape. Except for the important Native State of Travancore it includes nearly the whole of the southern part of the Peninsula, and stretches along the west coast northwards between Mysore and the sea. It stretches right along the East Coast as far as the boundary with Bihar and Orissa, and in addition to the coastal regions includes a portion of the Deccan Plateau and the Eastern Ghats. The Presidency of Madras thus lies in the following natural regions :—

- (a) West Coast Region, very wet.
- (b) Carnatic Region or Tamil Plains forming the southern part of the East Coast.
- (c) The Northern Circars Region or northern part of the East Coast.
- (d) The Deccan Plateau.

II. THE WEST COAST REGION

This region has already been described in part under Bombay. The southern part is similar but the alluvial plains between the hills and the sea are broader. The whole region is very wet, and can be divided, still more distinctly, into three strips :—

- (a) The sand dunes along the coast, largely covered by coconuts.
- (b) The flat alluvial land behind the sand dunes. The water of small streams from the hills is prevented from reaching the sea by the line of sand dunes and so spreads out to form shallow lagoons. The lagoons have been

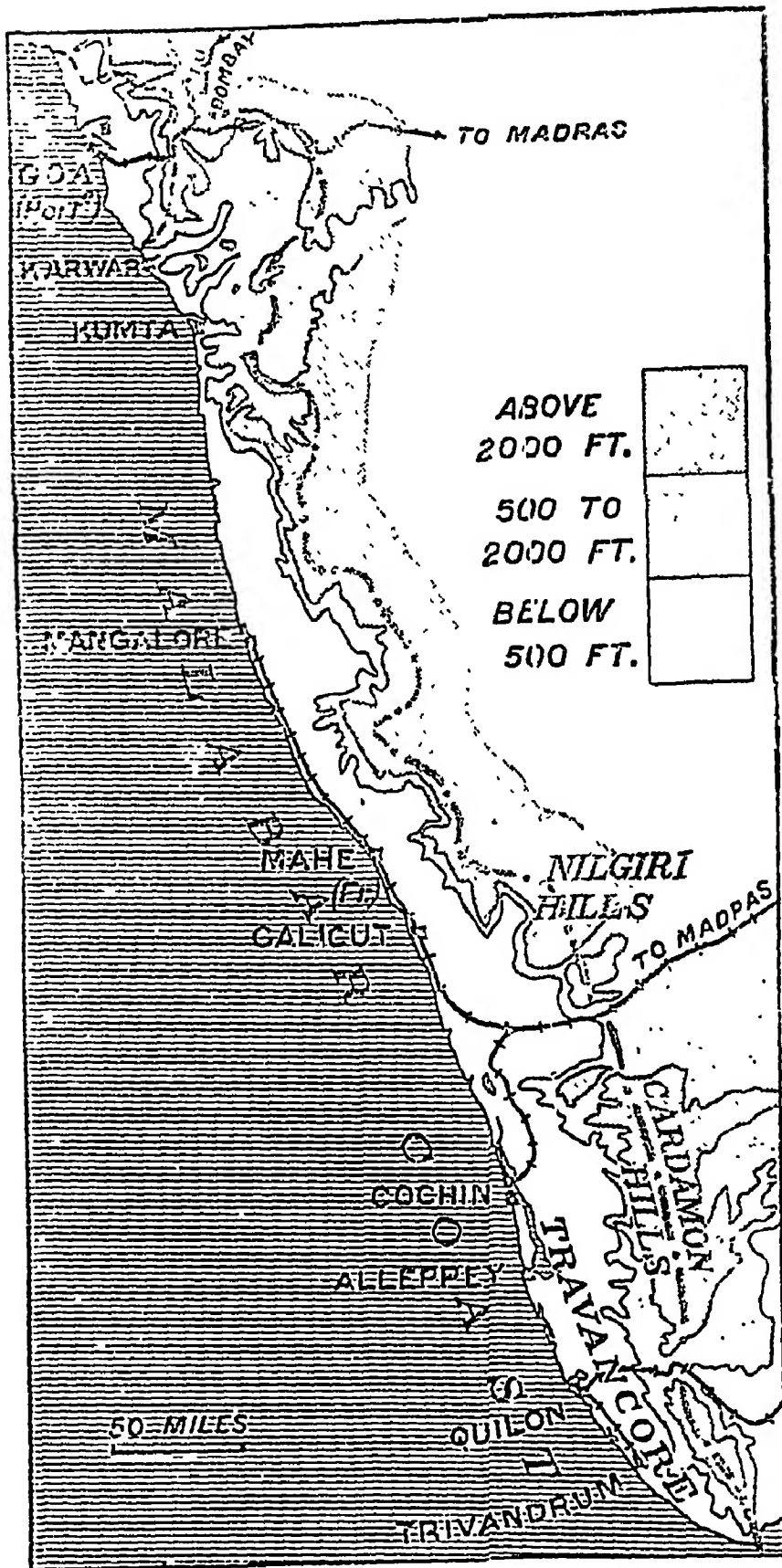


FIG. 119.—The West Coast Region.

connected by canals and it is possible to travel for hundreds of miles along the West Coast through these canals. Many of them are open to the sea and some are deep enough to form harbours for native craft. One, the harbour of Cochin, is being dredged near its mouth, and may soon form a very important harbour on the West Coast. The banks of the lagoons are often lined with coconut plantations, whilst every suitable piece of land is planted with paddy. Here and there are groves of the areca or betel-nut palm and the pepper plant, for which this coast has so long been famous, is still grown.

(c) The slopes of the Western Ghats are covered with dense evergreen forests and forests cover nearly a quarter of the whole region.

This region is densely populated. In Travancore there are as many as 1,200 people to the square mile. The staple food is, of course, rice, but many of the rice cultivators are backward jungle tribes. The coconut palm is of great importance to the inhabitants. Their huts are thatched with its leaves, the wood is used for building and for firewood. The preparation of the fibre of the husks or 'coir-picking' is an important industry and the dried kernel copra is exported. Coconut oil is also obtained and the juice of the coconut is made into a strong drink. Rubber planting is becoming a noteworthy industry in Travancore. Fishing is a common occupation along the coast.

Mangalore is a small town connected by rail with Madras.

Calicut is the fourth largest town in Madras and has a small timber trade. Like *Cochin*, it was once a famous spice port. *Cochin* is likely to increase greatly in size and importance when the mouth of its harbour is deepened.

Alleppey and *Quilon* in Travancore are growing industrial centres where coir rope and mats are made.

Trivandrum is the chief town of Travancore and can now be reached by railway from Madras.

III. THE CARNATIC REGION OR TAMIL REGION.

1. **General Features.**—In Chapter XIII you learnt that a natural region must have approximately the same characters throughout, but that sometimes there is a gradual change from one part to another. The area we are now going to study is like that. Near the sea there is a broad stretch of



FIG. 120.—The Carnatic Region. Land over 500 feet, light dots; land over 2,000 feet, dark dots.

flat land—a coastal plain—but as we go inland small hills appear, then larger hills until we find that the western part of the region is quite hilly. So we can divide the Carnatic Region into two parts.

(a) The coastal plain of south India.

(b) The hilly western region.

This natural region is bounded on the west by the crest of the Cardamom and Nilgiri Hills which separate it from the West Coast Region and on the north by the slopes of the Eastern Ghats which separate it from the Deccan Region.

If you look at Fig. 14 you will see that the coastal plain consists mainly of alluvium, with some other young soft rocks, and so this part is mainly agricultural. The hills consist of old hard crystalline rocks and mining industries are important.

2. Climate.—Let us now look at the climate of this region. In its climate this natural region is quite different from all other parts of India. When the rainy South-West Monsoon is blowing this area is in the 'rain shadow' of the Cardamom and Nilgiri Hills and the high Deccan Plateau and during the months of May to September no part of it gets more than 20 inches of rain. In October, however, the South-West Monsoon begins to change round into the North-East Monsoon. Severe storms occur down the Madras Coast and heavy rain falls. In this natural region October is usually the rainiest month. In November and December the wind is blowing from the north-east, that is from the Bay of Bengal, and brings some rain to the Carnatic Region. On Fig. 40 you will see marked the part of India which receives more than 10 inches of rain in November and December. Since the wettest months are October, November and December, the rainfall graphs for the towns of this region are quite different from those of other parts of India. The total rainfall for this region is just over or just below 40 inches. Owing to the November and December rain coming from the Bay of Bengal, the coastal plain is wetter than the hilly regions to the west. Look at Fig. 39, notice that the coastal plain of Madras has more than 40 inches of rain, the inland region less than 40 inches. Study the graph for Madras in Fig. 37 very carefully. Although Madras is on the coast, it is very dry from January to June and there

are few clouds to hide the sun. The extremes of temperature are greater than on the damp West Coast but much less than in the dry plains of Northern India, or at places like Nagpur in the centre of the plateau. At Madras (see Fig. 25) the coldest month is January and the hottest is June. The difference between them is not quite 14 degrees. You will see that this is more than the range of towns of the West Coast (with a range of 5 to 10 degrees), but less than that of the interior (Nagpur has a range of 27 degrees).

Summarizing what we have said, the Carnatic Region falls into two parts.

(a) Coastal Plain, most of which has just over 40 inches of rain, mainly falling in October, November and December.

(b) Hilly Western Region with less than 40 inches.

3. Irrigation.—Look at Fig. 121 and notice what a large part of the Coastal Plain is cultivated—nearly two-thirds of it. There is very little waste land and only a small area of forest. Look also at Fig. 122—that is the more hilly regions to the west. Here forests are important and occupy nearly a quarter of the whole. But again there is only a little waste land and nearly one half of the whole area is cultivated. Yet we must remember that much of the natural region we are studying gets less than 40 inches of rain. In some years much less rain falls and the crops may fail. In times past terrible famines often occurred. There are many thousands of irrigation tanks (see Chapter XI) in the Carnatic Region and many of them are very large. Much more important, however, are the great irrigation works constructed by Government, by means of which thousands and thousands of acres of dry land are made rich and fertile.

Let us look at the more important irrigation works constructed by Government in the Carnatic Region.

(a) The Periyar Project. The Periyar River flows through Travancore to the Arabian Sea. In the last chapter you learnt that Travancore has a very heavy rainfall and so there is always plenty of water in the Periyar River. A great wall was built across the valley of this stream and the valley was turned into a great lake. A tunnel then was made through the mountain and the water

taken through it to the Madras side of the hills. The water was then taken down canals into the flat land round Madura where it waters thousands of acres of land.

(b) The Poini, Palar and Cheyyar Systems. South of the town of Arcot, three rivers, the Poini, Palar and Cheyar have been dammed and their waters irrigate a large tract of country west of Madras.

(c) The Cauvery Delta System. One of the oldest irrigation works in India is the great system of canals which now covers the whole of the delta of the Cauvery River. The system was started hundreds of years ago, reconstructed by the British nearly a hundred years ago and continually improved since then. Now 1,000,000 acres are irrigated; there are 1,500 miles of main and branch canals and 2,000 miles of distributaries.

Look carefully at Fig. 59 and notice where the irrigated lands of Southern India are.

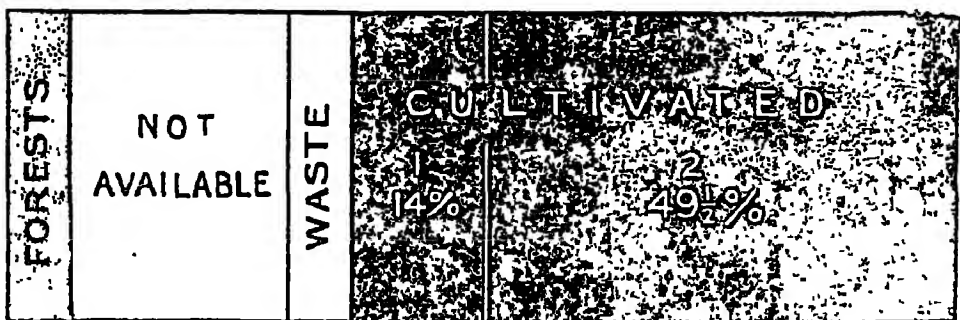


FIG. 121.—Cultivated Land, Carnatic Region (coast).

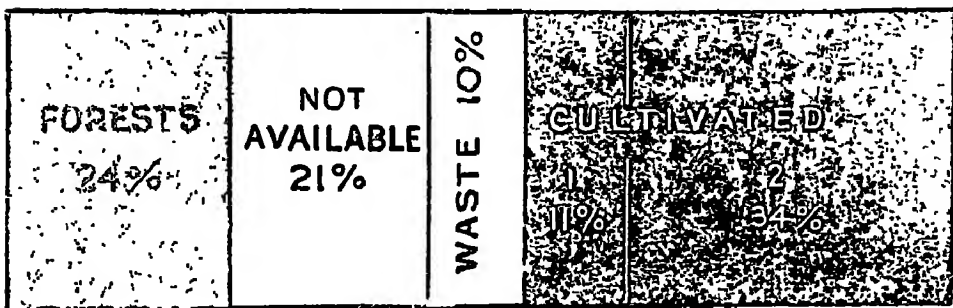


FIG. 122.—Cultivated Land, Carnatic Region (hills).

4. Crops.—Now that we have seen how part of the land is watered, let us see what crops are grown. Look at Figs. 123 and 124. You will notice that on the flat lands of the

plain, rice is the most important crop and is mostly grown on the irrigated land. On the drier land which is not irrigated millet is grown. Fig. 124 shows you that on the hilly regions where there are few areas flat enough for irrigation or for making paddy fields, millet is more important. So we find that altogether in the Carnatic Region about equal quantities of rice and millet are grown and both form the staple foods of the people. Compare this with the West Coast Region. Notice that both ground-nuts (grown for the sake of the oil) and cotton are important crops. On the hilly lands the short stapled Indian cotton is grown but on the irrigated lands it is possible to grow the long stapled American. Sugarcane, from the sap of which jaggery is made, and tobacco are cultivated over most of the area. All down the coast itself on the sandy dunes are coconut plantations. See what is said in the last chapter about the uses of the coconut.

RICE	MILLET	RAGI	OTHER FOODS	GROUNDNUTS	COTTON	
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FIG. 123.—Crops of the Carnatic Region (coast).

On the slopes of the Nilgiri Hills—that is really on the slopes of the Deccan Plateau—there are important tea plantations or tea gardens as they are called.

RICE	MILLET	RAGI	OTHER FOODS	GROUNDNUTS	COTTON	
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FIG. 124.—Crops of the Carnatic Region (hilly parts).

The forests grow on the hill slopes, wherever there is sufficient moisture. The most important trees are teak

and sandalwood. The teak forests are carefully looked after by Government—the best are in Coimbatore and on the slopes of the Nilgiri Hills. Other trees with very useful timber are being planted.

The minerals of this region are not very important but mica is mined in the Nellore District and much salt is obtained from the sea along the coast.

An important industry along the coast is fishing and pearl-fishing.

5. *People.*—The people of this natural region are nearly all Tamil-speaking. If you look again at Fig. 56 we notice that the area where Tamil is spoken is very nearly the same as the Carnatic Natural Region. The term Carnatic is not a good one and we may call this the Tamil Region. In the hills, such as the Nilgiris, there are various primitive hill tribes. The population over the whole region is dense, being over 400 to the square mile.

6. *Towns.*—If you look at Fig. 120 you will see that there are no natural inlets which can be used as harbours along the coast. Yet there are many small ports. At all of them the steamers have to anchor two or three miles away from the shore and the passengers are sent to the shore in small boats. The small native boats used for the purpose are called mussoola. The landing is often dangerous because of the size of the waves and the 'surf' which they make. The ports cannot be used at all in rough weather. Madras is the only port which has an artificial harbour, built at great cost and only finished in 1909.

Madras is the third largest city in India and the fifth most important port. The larger ports are Calcutta, Bombay, Karachi and Rangoon. Half a million people live in Madras. In the last chapter there is a map showing the large and rich hinterland of Bombay. Madras has not nearly such a large hinterland and there are other ports which share in the trade. The principal export is leather and the 'tanning' of hides and skins is a very important industry. There are also numbers of cotton mills in Madras and both cotton goods and raw cotton are important exports.

Pondicherri on the coast south of Madras is a French town and the capital of the French possessions in India.

Cuddalore is another small port.

Tuticorin is the port for the southern part of the region and has a regular service of steamers to Colombo (Ceylon). It is a centre of the cotton industry and is famous for its pearl fisheries.

Madura is an important inland centre in the midst of rich irrigated lands. Madura has also a dyeing industry.

Trichinopoly and *Tanjore* are other inland centres.

7. Railways.—Notice the railways which run from Madras. There is a broad gauge line along the coast to Waltair (Vizagapatam) and eventually to Calcutta. Another broad gauge line runs across the peninsula to Bombay. The South Indian Railway forms a network of lines to the South of Madras. Notice how the railway to the West Coast (Cochin and Calicut) passes through the gap between the Nilgiri Hills and the Cardamom Hills. Southward from Madras a narrow gauge railway runs to Madura and Tuticorin which used to be the main route to Ceylon. But now there is a railway to Pamban on the chain of islands towards Ceylon. From the furthest point (Dhanuskhodi) to the terminus of the Ceylon Railways at Talaimannar is only twenty-two miles of shallow sea. The sea between Ceylon and South India is very shallow here so that ocean steamers from Colombo to Madras have to go round the south of the island of Ceylon.

Running northwards and southwards from Madras is the Buckingham Navigation Canal—nearly 250 miles long.

IV. THE NORTHERN CIRCARS REGION ¹

1. General Features.—If you look again at Fig. 13 in Chapter II or, better still, at the map in your atlas in which the low lands are coloured green and the high lands brown, you will see that there is a strip of low land running down the east coast between the plateau land and the sea. The part we are going to study stretches from north of Madras, about the town of Nellore, right up the east coast past Vizagapatam. It is continued into the province of Bihar

¹ Comprising the Districts of Ganjam, Vizagapatam, Godavari, Kistna, Guntur and Nellore of the Madras Presidency. Orissa (part of the Province of Bihar and Orissa) really belongs to the same natural region.

and Orissa forming the District of Orissa. The Northern Circars Region is, then, a 'Coastal Strip'. It is not quite right to call it a coastal plain because in some parts there are many small hills. In days gone by this natural region formed the kingdom of Kalinga. This region is bounded

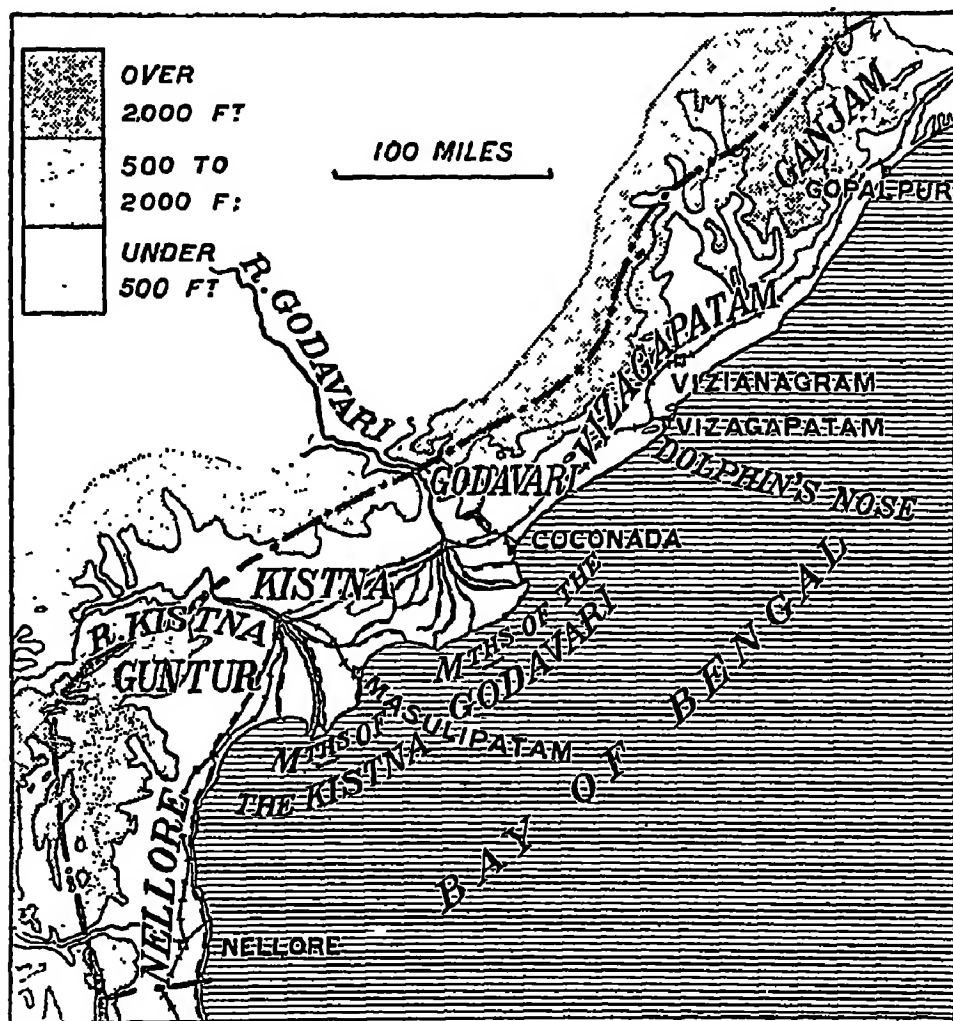


FIG. 125.—The Northern Circars Region.

on the west by the hills of the Eastern Ghats. The central part of the region is formed by the big deltas of the Godavari and Kistna Rivers. Further north, in the Vizagapatam District, it consists of a coastal plain with many small hills. Some of these small hills like the 'Dolphin's Nose' at Vizagapatam come right to the sea. In the north is the delta of the Mahanadi River. Notice also the large shallow

Chilka Lake—an arm of the sea which has been cut off by the growth of the Delta.

The rocks comprising the flat parts are alluvium and young soft rocks and afford a fertile soil, but the small hills consist of old hard crystalline rocks and very little will grow on them. Some of these old, hard rocks yield valuable minerals and much manganese ore is obtained near Vizagapatam. Along the sea shore there is usually a strip of sand and sand blown by the wind may do great damage to crops growing behind. Around the deltas of the rivers mangrove swamps may be found. The soil of the mangrove swamps is full of salt and the winning of salt is an important industry in Orissa. In the west of the region are the slopes of the Eastern Ghats, often covered with forest.

2. **Climate.**—If you compare this region with the last you studied—the Carnatic Region—you will notice that it is very similar. The plain is narrow, and the whole area much narrower. Its climate, however, is quite different. In the north the rainfall is well over 40 inches but as we go southwards it gets drier. Vizagapatam has just less than 40 inches. Further south it is still drier but when we get into the District of Nellore it begins to get damper again. In the Carnatic Region you learnt that the rain fell mostly in October, November and December and so that region was different from the rest of India. In the Northern Circars Region it falls when the South-West Monsoon is blowing from May to September which is quite different. Notice that the wind blows parallel to the coast, otherwise the rainfall would be much heavier than it is.

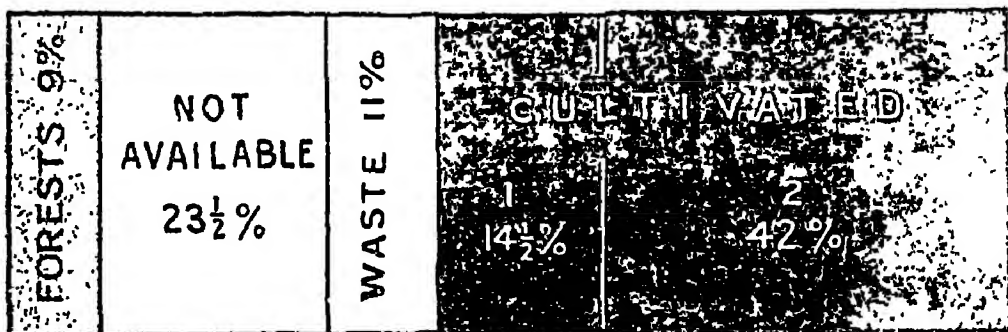


FIG. 126.—Cultivated land, Northern Circars Region and Orissa.

3. **Crops.**—You have learnt in Chapter VIII how important rainfall is to crops ; where the rainfall is more

than 40 inches the most important food crop is generally rice, where it is less than forty inches millet is most

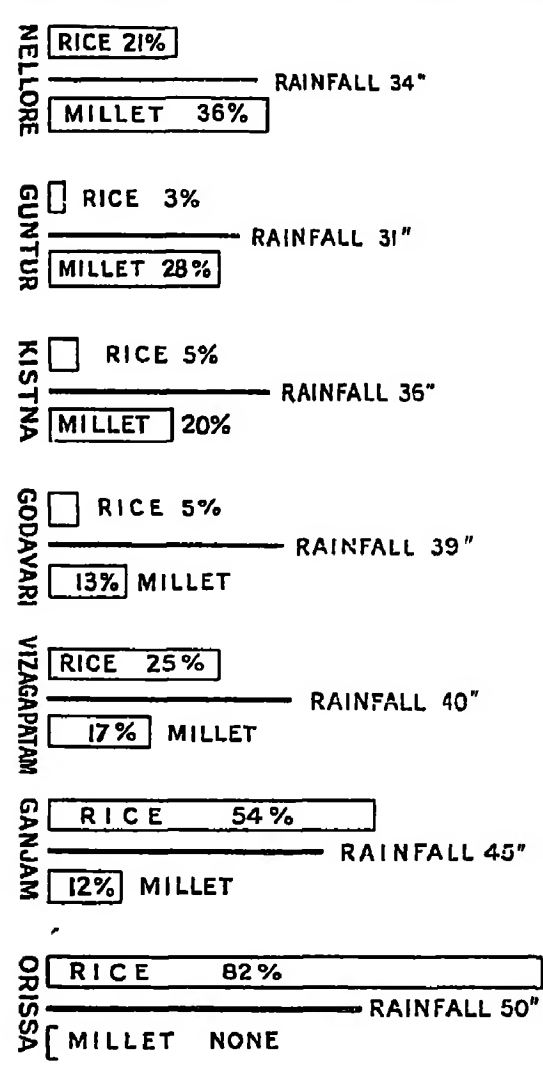


FIG. 127.—Crops and Rainfall on the Northern Circars Region and Orissa.

What to notice—

As the Rainfall gets *less* the amount of rice gets less, but the amount of millet gets *more*.

(This diagram does not count crops irrigated by canals.)

formed by spices, for which India has so long been famous.

In the damper parts of the Western hills there are important forests where the sal tree grows.

Fig. 126 shows you the proportion of this natural region devoted to different purposes. You will see nearly a

important. Let us see how far this is true of the Northern Circars Region. We have just said that this natural region is wettest in the north, that is in Orissa where no millet is grown at all. In Ganjam we find fifty times as much rice is grown as millet. The driest district in the region is Guntur and here twice as much millet is grown as rice. The Districts of Kistna and Godavari have both a rainfall of less than forty inches but the flat deltas of the two rivers Kistna and Godavari are irrigated (see Fig. 125 where some of the irrigation canals are marked) and so much rice is grown. This variation of crops is an important example of what we call 'climatic control of vegetation'. It is illustrated for you in Fig. 127. Study this carefully. Besides rice and millet other food crops are grown down this coast. Another valuable crop is

quarter of the area cannot be used for cultivation—it consists of rugged hillocks giving pasture to sheep, swamps etc. Only a very small part of the area is left 'waste'. The people who live in this natural region speak Telugu. It is a rich area and so there are as many as 345 people per square mile.

4. **Towns.**—There are no good natural harbours down the east coast of India. You learnt in the last chapter that Madras has now a fine artificial harbour but the part of the coast we are studying in this chapter is not so fortunate. In many places steamers have to anchor two or three miles from the shore and the goods are brought by the small mussoola boats through the surf to the land. Along part of the coast there is a bank of mud or sand about a mile or two from the shore and the big waves break on this and so their full force does not reach the shore. The best port of this natural region is Vizagapatam which is partly sheltered by a rocky headland called the Dolphin's Nose. Perhaps one day a good harbour will be built here, for a start has been made. The largest port is, however, Coconada which has a richer hinterland. Other ports are Masulipatam, Calingapatam and Gopalpur. Notice the position of these ports in the map (Fig. 125) and the extent of their hinterlands. Vizianagram is the only inland town of any size. Running right through this district, connecting to the north with Calcutta and to the south with Madras is a broad gauge railway. Fine bridges carry it across the Mahanadi, Godavari and Kistna Rivers. The numerous canals which exist in the deltas of these rivers have been made for irrigation, not for transport traffic. There is a canal connecting Orissa with the Hooghly River near Calcutta. On it lies the once important port of Balasore where formerly English, Dutch and French factories existed. Cuttack is the old capital of the kings of Orissa. The most important town in Orissa is now Puri, pleasantly situated on the sea coast and a famous place of pilgrimage.

V. THE DECCAN PLATEAU

The 'Deccan districts' of Madras—Bellary, Kurnool, Anantapur, Cuddapah and part of Chittoor—lie on the Deccan Plateau, but we will describe the main plateau under Mysore before dealing with this area.

VI. THE EASTERN GHATS

The Eastern Ghats are partly occupied by the ' Agency Division ' of Madras—to be described later.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Compare the climate of the Carnatic Region with that of the West Coast.
2. Which has the better position, Madras or Bombay? Why?
3. Give an account of irrigation in South India.
4. Why is South India less liable to famine than in years past?
5. Study Fig. 120. Find five gaps between ranges of hills used by railways. Mention towns (gap towns) guarding some of them.
6. Find another region in the world which you think is like the Northern Circars Region.
7. Compare the Northern Circars Region with the West Coast Region.
8. Compare the Northern Circars Region with the Carnatic Region.
9. What is meant by Climatic Control of vegetation?
10. Draw sketch maps showing the advantages or disadvantages of the position of Vizagapatam and Coconada.

CHAPTER XXVIII

MYSORE AND COORG

I. MYSORE

This important native state is ruled by a Maharaja who has direct relations with the Government of India. The British Officer attached to the court is called the British Resident. Mysore lies entirely on the high southern part of the Deccan Plateau. Besides embracing Mysore the Deccan Plateau stretches away northwards to embrace the Deccan districts of Madras, the eastern half of Hyderabad and the Dharwar District of Bombay.

II. COORG

The tiny British Province of Coorg, with its principal town Mercara, lies to the south-west of Mysore on the slopes of the Western Ghats. Much of it is forested.

III. THE DECCAN PLATEAU¹

1. General Features.—We have now studied the coastal strips surrounding the plateau of Peninsular India and in this section we are going to take the southern part of the plateau, that is the highest part and where the surface has not been cut into by rivers so deeply as it has further north.

We have called this natural region the 'Deccan Plateau'. In some books you will find the whole of Peninsular India called the Deccan but the Deccan properly means only the southern and south-eastern parts of it.

If you look at Fig. 128 you will see that practically the whole of the area we are studying is more than 500 feet

¹ The natural region of the Deccan comprises the whole of Mysore, the Deccan districts of Madras (Bellary, Kurnool, Anantapur, Cuddapah and part of Chittoor) the Dharwar District of Bombay and the eastern half of Hyderabad.



FIG. 128.—The Deccan Plateau. Land over 500 feet light dots, over 2,000 feet heavy dots.

above sea-level. Fig. 128 shows us, too, that the whole of the southern part, the State of Mysore is more than 2,000

feet above the level of the sea and there are large areas in Hyderabad more than 2,000. If you study Fig. 128 or the map of this area you will be able to understand why the whole of the Deccan is not 2,000 feet above the sea. Look at the great River Kistna and its many tributaries, and the River Penner. They have all carved out for themselves broad valleys in the surface of the plateau. We can say, then, that the Deccan is part of the great Plateau of Peninsular India, it is highest in the south and south-west. Towards the north-east it is lower and has been cut into by the valleys of the Kistna and its tributaries and the Penner. There are higher hills which stick out from the surface of the plateau. The highest hills or mountains are the Nilgiris, one peak of which is 8,760 feet high.

2. Climate.—You have learnt that the high western edge of the plateau is called the Western Ghats. You remember that the Deccan is in the rain shadow of the Western Ghats and receives less than 40 inches of rainfall. Some parts of this natural region do not even get 20 inches of rain in a year. The only parts which receive a moderate rainfall are the slopes of the Western Ghats. The Deccan is, then, a dry region except for a strip along the west near the Western Ghats. What is worse, too, the rainfall is irregular, in some years it is quite good, other years having practically none and so famine is much to be feared. The people store water in tanks but in bad years the tanks are not even full in the rainy season.

Most of the land being high, it is colder in the Hot Season than places in the plains. But look at the position of Hyderabad. It is a long way from the sea and so has greater extremes of temperature than places on the coast.

3. Minerals:—In Chapter III you learnt that the Plateau of Peninsular India consists of old hard rocks. The rocks of the Deccan are all very old indeed. They are so old that they have all been changed into 'Crystalline Rocks.' The change into crystalline rocks took place a very, very long time ago and the Deccan has been a solid plateau of very old, hard rocks for ages and ages. Long before the great Himalaya Mountains were formed, the Deccan—indeed nearly the whole of Peninsular India—was already a high plateau.

In some places these crystalline rocks contain valuable minerals, but in the Deccan they are not so rich as in some places. Gold is found at Kolar in Mysore, and the Kolar Goldfield produces more than half a million ounces of gold every year, worth more than 3 crores of rupees. Some gold is also found in Hyderabad. The only other important mineral is manganese ore, found in Mysore and exported to Europe for use in the manufacture of iron and steel.

The old crystalline rocks yield a very poor dry soil, so that although a large area is cultivated the crops are poor or, as we say, the yield is not good.

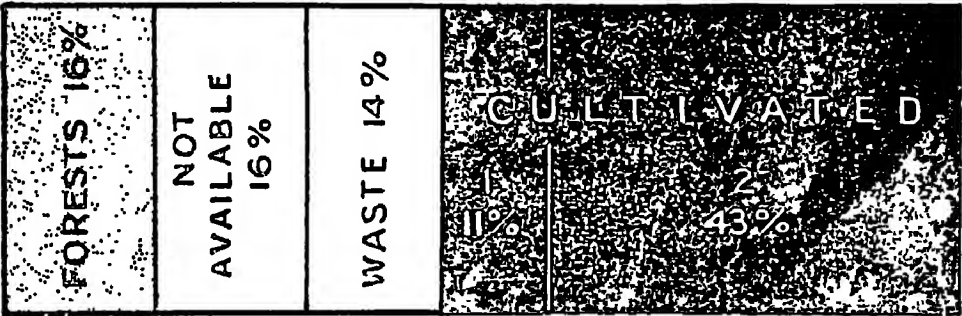


FIG. 129.—Cultivated land, Deccan Plateau.

4. Crops.—Let us now look at the uses to which the land is put (Fig. 129). We have learnt about the uses to which land is put in the three coastal regions. In the Deccan we

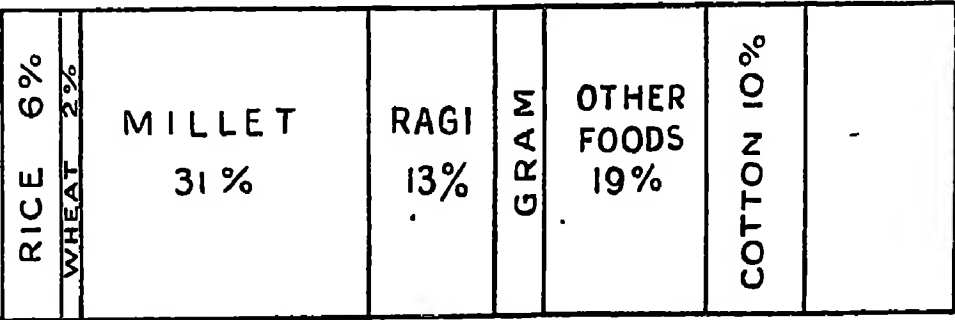


FIG. 130—Crops of the Deccan Plateau.

notice there is a rather large proportion of waste land—much more than in the thickly populated regions of the East Coast. Forests cover a large area too. You say how can that be when most of the natural region has much less than 40 inches of rain and forests like more? Well, most of the forests are found in the west of the natural region,

that is on the slopes of the Western Ghats and the damper slopes of other hills. In Mysore the forest clad western half is called the malnad; the drier, flatter eastern part the maidan. In the driest parts (see Fig. 43) there is very little forest. The people are industrious and much more than half the land is cultivated.

But now let us look at the crops which are grown. Fig. 139 shows you how different this natural region is from the others we have studied. There is not sufficient rainfall and very little flat land where rice can be grown. The places where most rice can be grown are on the flat surface of the plateau in Mysore, and the irrigated flat valley lands in Kurnool and Cuddapah Districts of Madras. Notice on Fig. 139 a small area shown for wheat. Nearly all this wheat is grown in the Dharwar District of Bombay. But nearly everywhere millet is the staple food of the people and the most important crop. In nearly all the drier, hilly or plateau parts of India we find millet as the people's chief food. Another important crop is cotton, but it is not as important as it is in the Deccan Lavas Region, where the soil is much better and more suited to cotton.

Some years ago coffee planting used to be an important industry in Mysore but a bad disease destroyed many of the bushes. Worse even than that, huge quantities of coffee are grown very cheaply in the far away South American country of Brazil. This cheap coffee is sent to all parts of the world and so it does not pay to grow coffee in India except in a few places. Don't forget this as an important example of how India's trade and industries may be affected by parts of the world far away.

Tea which requires good rainfall on well-drained hill slopes is grown on the slopes of the Nilgiri Hills, on the borders of this region and the Carnatic Region.

Sheep are reared all over the Deccan Region and flourish on the dry grasslands of the hill sides. This region has nearly $\frac{1}{2}$ of all the sheep in India. There are many cattle too, but in the drier parts fodder has to be grown for their food.

5. People.—In the south-west of this region, that is in Mysore, nearly all the people speak Kanarese (or Kannada as it is sometimes called). In the remainder of the region Telugu is the principal language. For this reason the

eastern half of Hyderabad (which falls in the Deccan Region) is called Telingana, or the land of the Telugu language. Most of the people are Hindus. This natural region is not very thickly peopled. In Hyderabad there are only about 150 people to the square mile, in Mysore 200 and in Madras 140. Compare this with the coastal regions:

6. **Towns.**—*Mysore* is the capital of Mysore State and the Maharaja of Mysore has built a very fine palace there.

Bangalore is larger than Mysore, it is nearer the centre of Mysore State and is easily reached from Madras. It is the seat of Government and the most important town in Mysore. Silk is produced in Mysore and there are factories at Mysore and Bangalore.

High up in the Nilgiri Hills lies the hill station of *Ootacamund*, where the Government of Madras stays during the Hot Weather. On the slopes of the Nilgiri Hills are many tea gardens. Ootacamund is now reached by a little hill-railway from the plains below. *Kolar* forms the centre of the important goldfields.

Bellary is the largest town in the Deccan Districts of Madras Presidency. *Kurnool* stands at the head of a canal—the Kurnool-Cuddapah Canal—which irrigates a valley between the Kistna and Penner Rivers. This canal formed a small part of an enormous scheme to irrigate nearly all the drier part of Madras, but was the only part finished and it cost five times as much as was expected. So you see that not all irrigation works are successful; some are so expensive to build that the land is not worth it.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Compare the crops of this region with those of the West Coast. Why are they different?
2. This region is nearly as dry as the Carnatic Region but not nearly so much is irrigated. Why is that?
3. Write an account of the mining industries of Madras Presidency.
4. Write an account of the Cotton Industry of India.
5. Compare the climate and productions of the Deccan Lavas Region and the Deccan Region.

CHAPTER XXIX

HYDERABAD OR THE NIZAM'S DOMINIONS

Hyderabad is the largest native state in India, and is ruled by the Nizam. The capital of the State, Hyderabad, is the fourth largest city in India. The state lies entirely on the Plateau of Peninsular India and falls into two halves. The western half, or Marathwara, where Marathi is spoken, is covered by the Deccan lavas and forms part of the Deccan Lavas region already described under Bombay. It is not so highly developed as the neighbouring parts of Bombay and Berar, but grows very large quantities of cotton and, as in Berar, the staple food of the people is millet. Gulbarga and Aurangabad are two of the most important towns.

The eastern half, or Telingana, where Telugu is spoken, is part of the Deccan Plateau, described under Mysore. The old crystalline rocks yield a less fertile soil and very much less cotton is grown than in the western half. There are about 150 people to the square mile. Hyderabad is the natural centre of the state, and is now well served by railways.

The north-eastern part of Hyderabad slopes down towards the Godavari River and cannot really be considered as part of the Deccan Plateau. The Godavari Valley almost forms a natural region of its own, which lies mainly in the Central Provinces.

CHAPTER XXX

THE CENTRAL PROVINCES, INCLUDING BERAR

I. THE PROVINCE

The Central Provinces and Berar occupy a large area in the heart of India. The Central Provinces are larger than the United Provinces, but have only one-third as many people. They are nearly as large as Madras, but have less than half as many people. On the whole, the Central Provinces are not so well developed as most of the British Provinces in India, largely because the country is not so suited for development. A number of small Native States are included.

The country is very varied. Running through the north of the Central Provinces is the great line of highlands which divide Peninsular from Northern India—the Satpura Line. In the Central Provinces the highlands are known as the Mahadeo Hills and the Maikal Range and pass eastwards into the Chota Nagpur Plateau. North of this line the country belongs to the Central Indian Foreland, south of this line is Berar, forming part of the great cotton growing region of the Deccan Lavas, described under Bombay. The flatland round Nagpur forms part of the Godavari Valley. Around Raipur is another plain; the Chhattisgarh Plain, or Valley of the Mahanadi, whilst in the south are the wild hill regions of the Eastern Ghats.

Berar is the most developed region on account of its rich cotton soil. It forms part of the Deccan Lavas Region, described under Bombay. Akola and Amraoti are the collecting centres from which the cotton is sent by rail to Bombay.

If we consider together the whole of the north-eastern part of the Plateau of Peninsular India—the eastern half of the Central Provinces, with the adjoining parts of Hyderabad, Madras, Bihar and Orissa and Central India—we see that it was once a high plateau of old hard rocks but for a very long time its surface has been worn away by

great rivers like the Mahanadi and Godavari. Now we find pieces of the old plateau separated by broad valleys. Some parts are, then, very different from others, but let us just see what features are common to all parts.

(a) It is still a plateau since nearly the whole is more than 500 feet above sea-level and is bounded on the south-east by the Eastern Ghats—where the rivers cut through the Eastern Ghats they form rapids.

(b) It consists of old hard rocks.

(c) It has a rainfall of more than 40 inches over the whole and so is wetter than the other regions of the great plateau of Peninsular India.

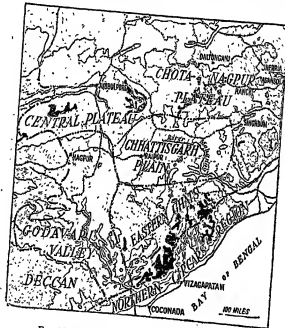


FIG. 131.—The north-east of the Indian Plateau.

Sub-regions.—Now study Fig. 131 very carefully and see

the reasons for dividing the North-eastern Plateau into smaller regions. These divisions are :—

(a) The Chota Nagpur Plateau (Bihar and Orissa).

(b) The Central Plateau or Central Highlands (Central Provinces).

(c) The Eastern Ghats (partly in the Central Provinces, partly in the Agency Division of Madras).

(d) The Chhattisgarh Plain or Mahanadi Valley (mainly in the Central Provinces, partly in Bihar and Orissa).

(e) The Godavari Valley (partly in the Central Provinces, partly in Hyderabad).

II. THE CENTRAL PLATEAU OR CENTRAL HIGHLANDS

The Central Plateau is very like the Chota Nagpur Plateau but is not quite so wild. At the western end it joins the Satpura Range and at the eastern end the Chota Nagpur Plateau and the whole line of mountains and uplands forms the very important barrier across India about which you learnt in Chapter II. To the south lies Peninsular India, to the north lies Northern India. The Regions to the north are connected with the Plains of Hindustan rather than with the Plateau of Peninsular India. To the north of the Central Plateau is the narrow Narbada Valley in which the very important town of Jubbulpore is situated. Jubbulpore is the gateway to the north.

III. THE EASTERN GHATS

The Eastern Ghats in this part of India correspond with the Agency Division of the Madras Presidency and the neighbouring hilly tracts of Bastar in the Central Provinces. Like the Chota Nagpur Plateau this is a wild region inhabited by wild forest tribes and the ordinary law of the land is only partly in force. The chief government officials are called 'Agents'. That is why we talk about the 'Agency Division'. The division is more hilly than the Chota Nagpur and some peaks are nearly 5,000 feet high. The hill tribes speak curious languages of their own. Very few of them can read or write because they often have no schools and no books. They have to struggle so hard to get a living from the

jungle that they have very little time to spare for improvement. Their clothes are few and dirty. They have wild religions of their own and are not Hindus or Mohammedans. They are brave men but their life is very hard. From early morning till dark, almost every day of the year, they have to work clearing a small patch of forest round their villages and growing enough food to live. The forests are again mostly sal but there is a little teak in the south.

IV. THE CHHATTISGARH PLAIN

The Chhattisgarh Plain or the Mahanadi Valley is a broad valley separating the Plateau of Chota Nagpur and the Central Highlands from the Eastern Ghats. It is a ricegrowing district with about 150 people to the square mile. Compare this with 60 people to the square mile in the Chota Nagpur Plateau.

The most important centre of this part is *Raipur*, and there are railways running from Raipur in several directions. An important railway is now being started between Raipur and Vizagapatam which is to be made into a good harbour. A large area of land round Raipur is irrigated.

V. THE GODAVARI VALLEY

The Godavari Valley is rather like the last region but in many parts the valley is narrow. Where

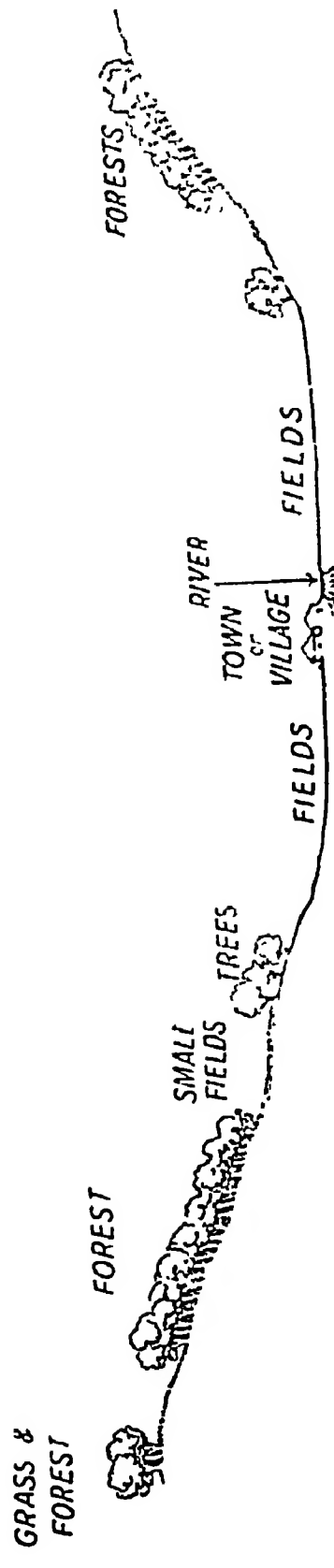


FIG 132.—Typical Valley Section.

it cuts through the Eastern Ghats there are dangerous rapids. The river is navigable for at least part of the year, but there is one stretch near Seoni which cannot be used and a tramway has been built to cut off a bend of the river. Find this in Fig. 131. In the Godavari Valley there are sedimentary rocks. In the sandstones of the Godavari Valley coal has been found and one day there may be an important coalfield here.

VI. TOWNS OF THE CENTRAL PROVINCES

The Central Plateau is crossed by several railways where it is narrow. We have already talked about the Narbada Valley to the north of the Central Plateau. There is the big city of *Jubbulpore*, the gateway to the fertile Ganges Plain. Study its position carefully. It has more than 100,000 inhabitants.

In the Chhattisgarh Plain notice how the railways radiate outwards and follow the easiest routes through the surrounding hills. Nagpur is situated on the borders of the Deccan Lavas Region.

Before we leave this natural region there is one interesting thing you should notice. In this and in many other natural regions there are some parts where crops are grown, other parts with grass. Often if we take a section across a broad valley to the hills or plateaux on either side we find something like this :—

Notice the flat land with rice or other crops in the bottom of the valley near the river and the towns on the river ; then smaller fields and some waste land, then as we climb the sides of the hills we pass into forests. Often when we have climbed on the flat surface of the plateaux we find grass pasture lands. We can call this a typical valley section.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Do you think the Chota Nagpur Plateau will ever become an important part of India? Give your reasons fully.
2. Describe the agriculture in the hilly parts of this natural region.
3. Draw a sketch-map to show the important position of Nagpur.
4. If Vizagapatam is made an important port will it make any difference to this natural region?
5. Draw sketch-maps to show the importance of the position of Jubbulpore and Raipur.
6. Draw a map of Peninsular India showing the staple food of the people in different parts.

CHAPTER XXXI

RAJPUTANA AND AJMER-MERWARA

I. THE STATES OF RAJPUTANA

Rajputana is a large federation of native states in the north-west of India, south of the Hindustan Plains. In the centre lies the small British Province of Ajmer-Merwara. Running through the centre of Rajputana from south-west to north-east is the Aravalli Range. North-west of this range the country is very dry and slopes down gradually towards the Indus Valley and the Punjab Plains. This sloping area forms the Thar or Great Indian Desert. South-east of the Aravalli Range there is an upland country, which may be called the Rajput upland.

II. THE THAR DESERT ¹

Northern India is separated from Peninsular India by a long line of hills running from west to east. Follow the line very carefully on your map. In the west it is called the Satpura Range, passing eastwards into the Mahadeo Hills and then the Maikal Range. Throughout the history of India this line has formed a very important barrier and has cut off the peoples of Northern India from those of Peninsular India. The part of India lying north of the range slopes, on the whole towards the great plains of the Indus and Ganges. There are however lines of hills which interrupt the general slope. The two most important lines are the Vindhya Range and the Aravalli Range.

¹ Comprising roughly the North-Western part of Rajputana and the adjoining tracts of Sind and the Punjab.

Notice now the position and direction of the Aravalli Hills—from south-west to north-east through the heart of Rajputana. The crest of the range is generally about 3,000 feet high, and from there the land slopes north-westwards, gently but irregularly, to the plains of the Indus. The great Indian Desert occupies this sloping area. The Thar or Great Indian Desert may thus be defined as a vast dry area lying between the slopes of the Aravalli Range and the Indus Plains.

It consists of a sandy waste, interrupted by rocky hills and waterless valleys. The ground is often entirely bare, in some places there may be a few shrubs or plants with thick fleshy leaves and stems which can store up water or with very long roots which can reach the moisture far below the surface.

The rainfall of the Desert is generally less than 10 inches annually. Even this amount is very irregular and falls mainly during storms. In some years there may be no rain at all. Notice, however, that the rainfall is greater than in parts of the rich Indus Valley. The Thar Desert remains a desert because there are no large rivers which can be used for irrigation. Even if rivers existed, the land is not flat and it is difficult to irrigate land unless it is flat.

Very few people live in this region. In the State of Jaisalmer, which lies in the centre, there are only four people in every square mile. Some of the people live in villages which spring up where there is a little water and a little millet and fodder can be grown. Often the water in the wells fails or becomes salt and the village has to be abandoned. Many people own camels and trade across the desert.

The railway from Karachi to Delhi runs along the southern border of the desert, and another railway cuts across the eastern end, but there is no railway or road through the heart of the desert. It is still a great barrier to the movement of man as it has been throughout Indian history. It can be crossed by camel routes and one of the principal centres is the little town of Jaisalmer. Bikanir is a small town towards the eastern end of the desert and noted for its manufacture of camel hair goods. Many carpets are made here. It is a flourishing city and increasing in size.

III. THE RAJPUT UPLAND REGION¹

1. General Features.—In the last section it was explained that Northern India is cut off from Peninsular India by the

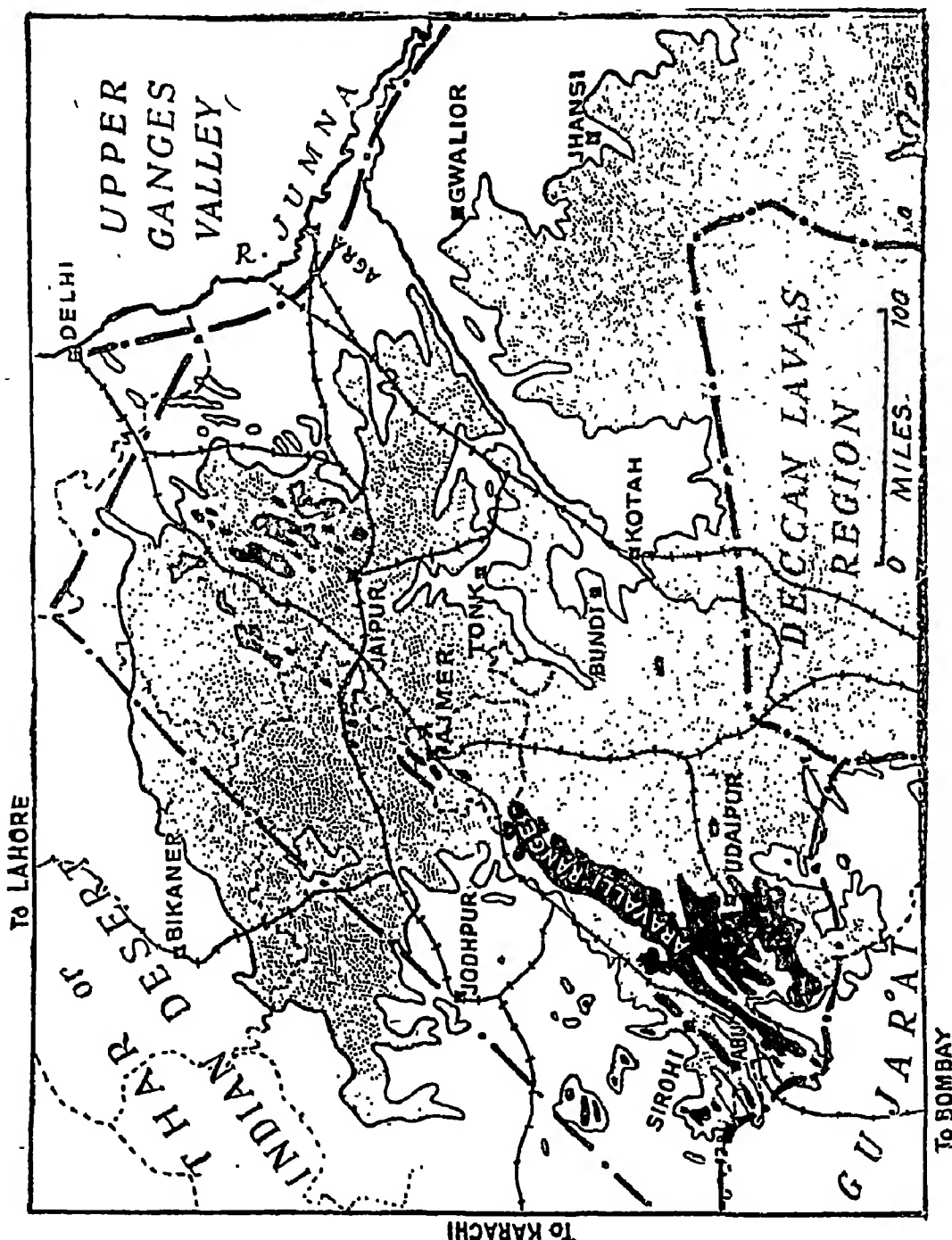


FIG. 133.—The Rajput Upland Region.

Satpura line of mountains. From the north of that line, up

¹ The Rajput Upland Region comprises the whole of the south-eastern two-thirds of Rajputana—with both slopes of the Aravalli Range, the Province of Ajmer-Merwara and part of Central India (western division).

to and including the Aravalli Range there is a large tract of upland country, hilly, mountainous or plateau. The northern half of this tract is occupied by the group of native states known as Rajputana, the language spoken is Rajasthani. Old, hard, crystalline rocks occupy this part. Further south we find the old hard rocks have been covered by great flows of lava, known as the Deccan Lavas. This southern half of the tract is occupied by the group of native states grouped as Central India (west). It is not always easy to decide into what natural regions a country should be divided, and here is an interesting case. The rocks and soil of this southern part are like those of the Deccan Lavas Region of Peninsular India, and so we can treat this southern area as part of the Deccan Lavas Region. But the Satpura Line is an important barrier and general considerations link this southern part with Rajputana. Look again at the map and at the map of India in your atlas and notice that the Rajput Upland Region consists of:—

- (a) The Aravalli Range.
- (b) The network of forested hills of Southern Rajputana.
- (c) The Valleys of Eastern Rajputana.
- (d) The Vindhya Hills and their northern slopes with the Mahlwa Plateau.
- (e) The Narbada Valley.

2. Climate.—The whole region receives less than 40 inches of rain. In the north-west the slopes of the Aravalli Range fade away into the Thar Desert. To the east the rain-fall gradually increases and the region passes gradually into the Central Indian Foreland with more than forty inches. The Rajput Upland is, then, a dry region. It is also a hilly region and so irrigation is difficult. We find that crops depend mainly on rainfall. In good rainfall years the crops are good; in bad rainfall years the crops may fail entirely. There are two harvests, the Rabi and Kharif. Sometimes one may be bad and the other good. When both are bad, severe famine may result. The rain falls mainly during heavy storms and the amount always varies greatly from year to year. As a result of the irregular rainfall, not many people live in this natural region. In good years a great many more people could easily live here but in bad years even

the few people there are have to get food from other regions.

FORESTS 8%	NOT AVAILABLE 30 %	WASTE 21%	CULTIVATED 11% 30%
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FIG. 134.—Cultivated Land, Rajput Uplands.

3. **Crops.**—Although the rainfall is only just enough for the growth of forests, the hills of Southern Rajputana—the home of the Bhils—are forest covered. Fig. 134 shows you the large proportion of waste land. The staple food of the people is millet, and gram for fodder. Study Fig. 135.

WHEAT 11%	BARLEY 8%	MILLET 37 %	MAIZE 3%	GRAM & OTHER FOODS 25%	OIL SEEDS 4%	COTTON 3%	OTHERS
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FIG. 135.—Crops of the Rajput Uplands.

In the hilly forested parts of this region live the Bhils, a wild forest tribe. In other parts of the region the people are mainly Hindus and Rajasthani is their language. Rajputana is the great centre of the Jains. If we look at the occupations of the people we find far more are engaged in industry than in many other parts of India. That is because there are important native industries—especially the making of cotton goods at Bikanir. Woollen goods, especially blankets, are made in most parts of Rajputana from the wool of sheep and goats. In the drier regions, bordering the Thar Desert, camel hair is used and carpets, clothes, etc., are made.

4. **Towns.**—This region lies between the fertile plains of the Upper Ganges and the regions of Peninsular India. So we find, although it is not very important or thickly peopled, there are several important railway lines running right through it. Along the northern edge, that is along the northern slopes of the Aravalli Range, is the line from Karachi to Delhi; further south is the line from Delhi to Bombay. To the east of the region is the line from Agra, through Jhansi to Bhopal and then joining the line along the Narbada Valley. The Narbada Valley is an important highway. Along it runs the railway from Bombay to Jubbulpore and on to Allahabad and Calcutta.

Ajmer, the principal town of the British Province of Ajmer-Merwa, is an important town of over 100,000 inhabitants. It is a flourishing city and steadily increasing in size and has food and textile industries and railway workshops.

Jaipur is larger than Ajmer but is getting smaller. It has suffered much from plague and other diseases. It has textile and railway industries.

Abu is a small hill station at the southern end of the Aravalli Range. It is 5,000 feet above sea-level and has a rainfall of 60 inches although the plains nearby have only 20 inches.

Jodhpur is on the borders of this region and the desert.

Other cities in Rajputana owe their importance usually to their being capitals of States. They are not flourishing and tend to decrease in size.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Draw a sketch-map of Northern India to show the lines of hills which separate Northern from Peninsular India.
2. Write an account of the climate of the Rajput Upland Region and its influence on agriculture.
3. Who are the Bhils? Describe their life and draw a little map to show where they live.
4. Draw a sketch-map of this natural region marking the parts into which it may be divided.

CHAPTER XXXII

THE CENTRAL INDIA-AGENCY AND GWALIOR

I. THE STATES

The Central India Agency is a federation of native states lying in Central India. The most important is Gwalior. The States form two blocks of country, separated by a portion of the United Provinces. The western half lies in the Rajput Upland Region; the eastern half lies in the Central Indian Foreland.

In the western half Indore is the largest town and is an industrial centre. Bhopal has few industries and is getting smaller. Lashkar and Ujjain have cotton factories. The town of Gwalior is on the borders of the Ganges Valley.

II. THE CENTRAL INDIAN FORELAND¹

In Chapter XXX it was explained that Northern India is cut off from Peninsular India by a line of mountains and highlands, the Satpura Range, Mahadeo Hills and Maikal Range. Between this line of mountains and the great Plain of Hindustan—the valleys of the Indus and Ganges—the land forms an irregular plateau, sloping on the whole northwards. The western part we have now described as the Rajput Upland Region; the eastern part we may call the Central Indian Foreland since it is the land which lies *before* the mountains of the centre of India—of the Central Provinces. The most typical part of this natural region is formed by the areas known as Bundelkhand and Baghelkhand.

The chief difference between this region and the Rajput Upland Region is that most of this region has a rainfall of more than 40 inches. In the Rajput Upland Region wheat and millet are the two staple crops, in this region rice is the

¹ The whole of this natural region comprises a strip along the southern border of the United Provinces, with Jhansi and the eastern part of the Central India Agency and the northern part of the Central Provinces.

most important. The Rajput Upland lies between the Satpura Range and the Thar Desert. The Central Indian Foreland lies between the highlands of the Central Provinces and the Ganges plain, nearly as far north as the Jumna

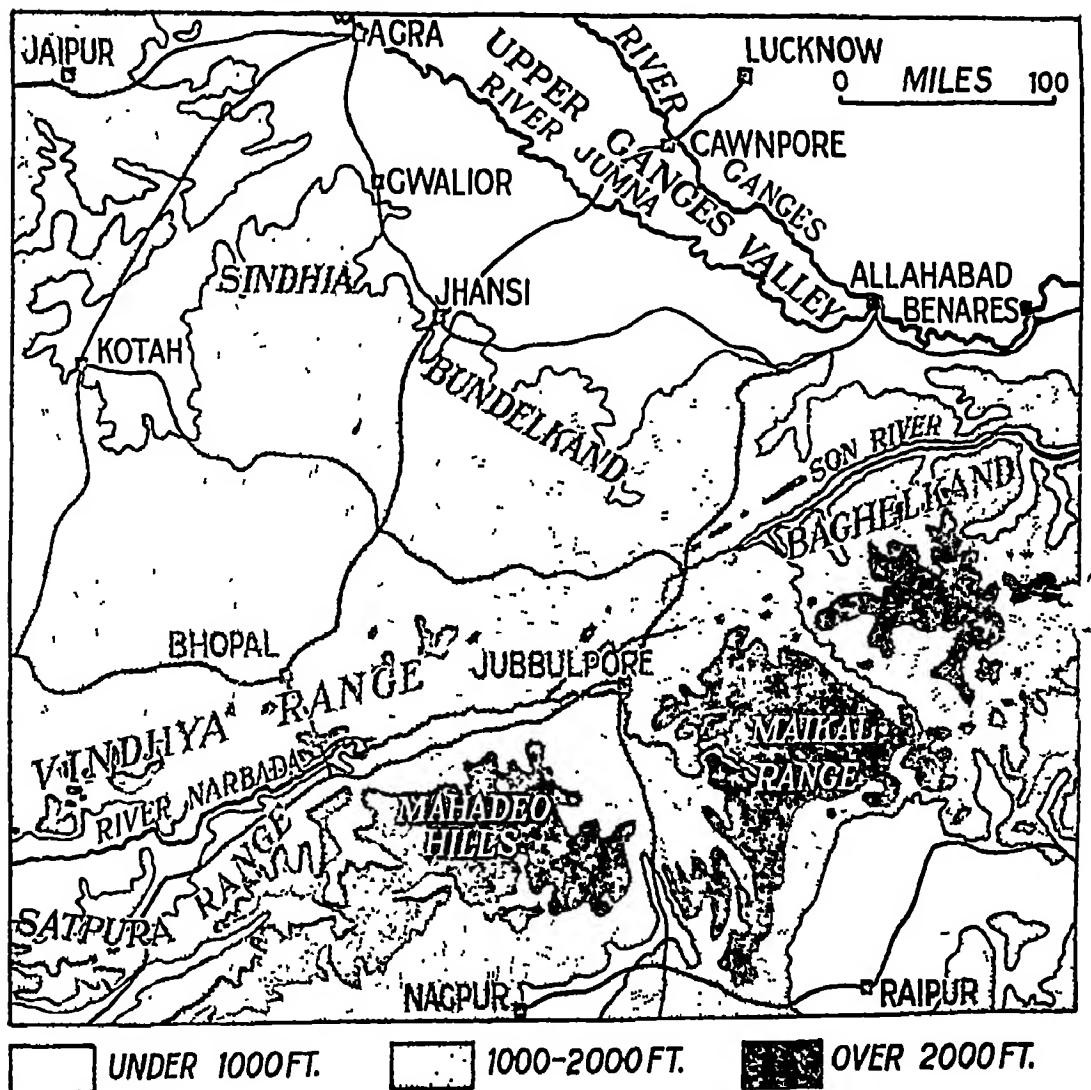


FIG. 136.— The Central Indian Foreland.

River. The northern strip of this region, along the Jumna River, has slightly less than 40 inches of rain and is irrigated by canals which, however, dry up in the hot season.

This region is thinly populated and has only about 120 people to the square mile.

Jubbulpore, lying in the Central Provinces is by far the most important town. It owes its importance mainly to its position. Notice that it lies in the upper part of the

Narbada Valley near which there are easy ways across the great Ganges Plain to the north and to the Chhattisgarh Plains around Nagpur on the south. One of the main railways from Bombay to Calcutta takes advantage of these natural features, runs up the Narbada Valley as far as Jubbulpore and then crosses to the Ganges Valley to Allahabad. Jubbulpore also has important manufactures. *Jhansi* in the United Provinces is a collecting station in the north-west of the region and is now a railway junction.

CHAPTER XXXIII

CEYLON

1. **Position.**—Ceylon is a large island situated to the south of Peninsular India. It must once have been joined to India and in many ways it is very similar. Ceylon is shaped like a pear and is a little smaller than the State of Mysore, its area being about 25,000 square miles. The distance from north to south is 270 miles.

2. **Physical Features and Geology.**—In its physical features Ceylon is very simple. It consists of a central mass of mountains, surrounded by a broad coastal plain. Many of the central mountains are high, the highest is more than 8,000 feet. In the north the coastal plain is quite flat and there are several sandy peninsulas. The end of the Mannar Peninsula is only 22 miles from the nearest point of India (Dhanuskhodi). Ceylon is very nearly joined to India between these two points by a line of sand banks and rocks called Adam's Bridge.

The mountains of Ceylon consist of the same old, hard crystalline rocks as the Deccan. These same rocks underlie the coastal plain, but there they have been covered by a thick coat of *laterite*. Laterite is a rock which is formed in hot, wet countries by rain acting on other rocks. The old crystalline rocks at the surface have been completely changed by the action of the rain water and turned into a much softer, red or brown rock, full of holes. In the north of the island the old rocks have been covered by soft limestone. Round the island there are many sand dunes. The old, crystalline rocks of Ceylon are noted for their beautiful gemstones and for the mineral graphite from which 'lead' pencils are made.

3. **Climate.**—Ceylon is nearer the equator than any part of India and so is hot all the year round. The presence of the sea keeps the climate equable and everywhere along the coast land and sea breezes are felt. There is very little difference between the temperature of day and night—that is, the 'daily range' is very small. At Colombo it

is only 12 degrees. The annual range is also very small. January is the coldest month (80°) and May the hottest but at Colombo there is only a difference of 5 degrees between the two. Compare the temperature graph for Trivandrum in Chapter IV.

You have learnt that the western coast of Southern India gets a heavy rainfall from the South-West Monsoon, whilst the eastern coast gets much of its rain in the months of November and December when the North-East Monsoon has begun to blow. Ceylon gets its rain from both monsoons. There is a heavy rainfall on the west and south-west coasts and the mountains from the South-West Monsoon. There is a heavy rainfall on the north-east coast and eastern slopes of the mountains later in the year from the North-East Monsoon. The northern part of the island has no hills to intercept the winds and is a dry region. So also is the south-eastern part of the island. You will see that although Ceylon is not a very large island its climate varies considerably.

4. *Vegetation.*—Just as the climate of Ceylon varies a great deal, so does the natural vegetation vary greatly from one part of one island to another. The lower slopes of the mountains used to be covered with thick evergreen forest. Now most of these forests have been cleared away to make room for rubber plantations and tea gardens and there is little timber of value left. The wetter parts of the lowlands were also covered with wet evergreen forests and the drier parts with scrub forests. A great part of the wetter land is now used for rice and coconuts but the drier parts are still untouched.

Taking the whole of Ceylon, about $\frac{2}{3}$ is cultivated. Thick forest covers about $\frac{1}{5}$ of the area and there is a large amount still covered by waste land which might be used.

5. *Population.*—There are rather over $4\frac{1}{2}$ million people in Ceylon. The principal race is the Sinhalese or Ceylonese who, between 2,000 and 3,000 years ago, came from the north of India and conquered Ceylon. The Sinhalese are Buddhists by religion, or followers of the Great Teacher Buddha. At Kandy is the Temple of the Tooth, where a tooth of Buddha is preserved. It is one of the most sacred places in the world to Buddhists. The north of

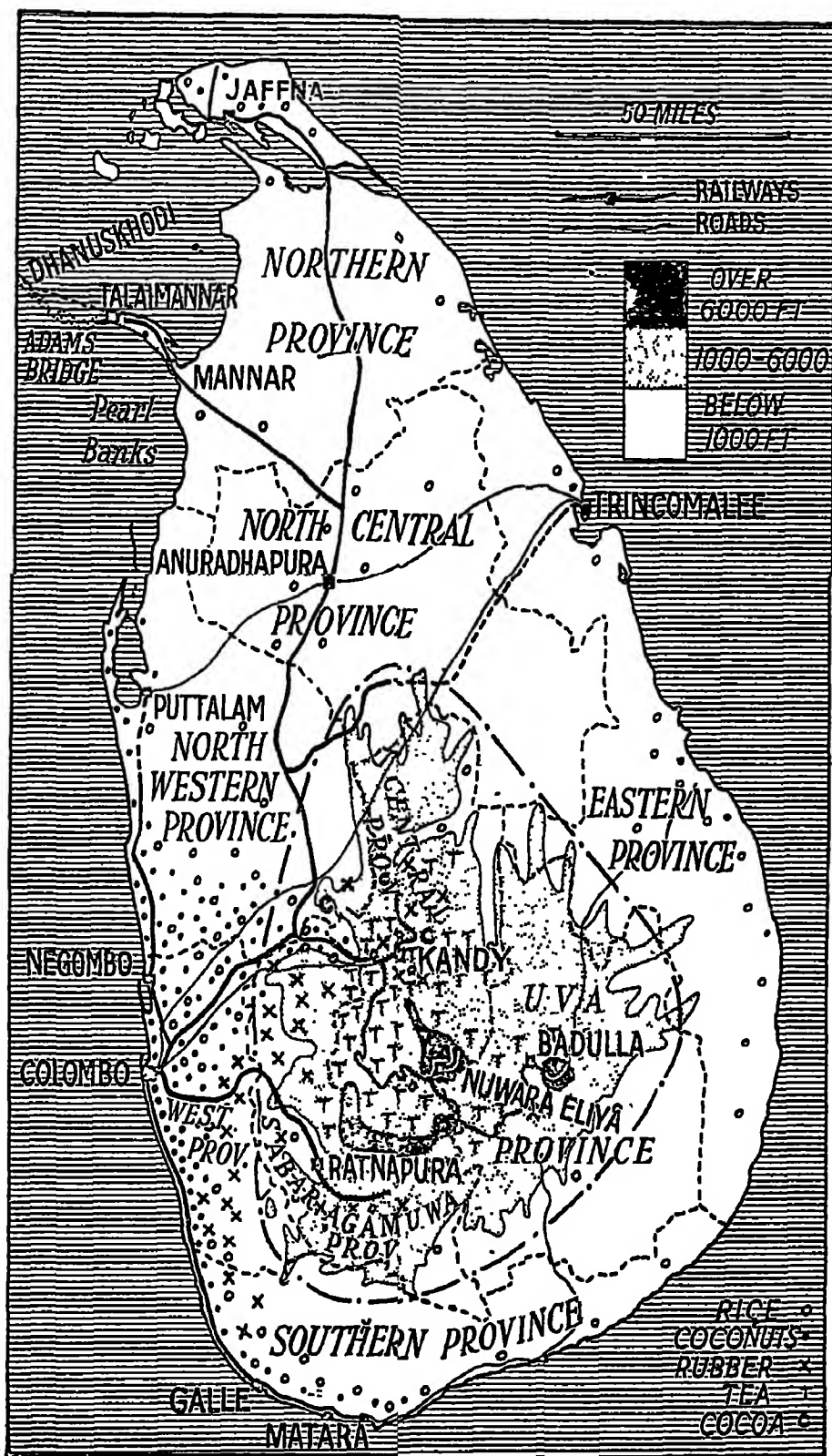


FIG. 137.—Ceylon—General map.

Note.—Each sign for rice, coconuts, rubber, tea or cocoa represents 10,000 acres.

Ceylon is inhabited mainly by Tamils, who are Hindus by religion, and who came over from India either as conquerors in past ages, or more recently as labourers in the tea gardens, coffee and rubber estates. The Moors are Mohammedan traders, boatmen or fishermen who came originally from North Africa. The descendants of the old Portuguese and Dutch settlers are called Burghers. In the wilder parts of the mountains, there are still a few Veddas, a very primitive hill tribe. The people live mainly on the wetter parts of the plain and in the hills. On the dry, unfertile soils of the northern regions and the east there are very few people.

6. **Government.**—Ceylon is entirely separated from India in matters of Government. The first Europeans to settle in the Island were the Portuguese in 1505 ; followed by the Dutch and latter by the English. The old Dutch forts are still to be seen at Galle and other places. Ceylon was separated from the Presidency of Madras in 1802 and made a Crown Colony and so became a separate country of the British Commonwealth. It is ruled by a Governor and an Executive Council with a Legislative Council elected by the people.

CHAPTER XXXIV

CEYLON—NATURAL REGIONS

1. **Natural Regions.**—Ceylon, though only a small country, must be divided into at least three natural regions :—

(a) The Hill-Country, comprising the central mountain mass of the island, roughly the land over 1,000 feet.

(b) The Maritime Belt, or Coastal Plain of the east, south and west.

(c) The Northern Limestone Plain, occupying the northern end of the island.

2. **The Hill Country.**¹—This natural region is formed by the mountainous centre of the island. It consists of a series of ridges, separated by deep valleys, running roughly from north-east to south-west. Very little is now left of the vast forests which covered this region before the days of European planting. The trees are nearly all evergreen and get smaller the higher one goes, so that above 5,000 feet the trees are too small to be useful as timber. At intervals there are broad, marshy or grassy plains, like that of Nuwara Eliya and the Horton Plains, surrounded by mountains. The rainfall of most of the region is heavy ; the rain does not fall so heavily as on the plains but is more continuous and for days or even weeks together the sun may be hidden by dense clouds of mist. The greater part of the rain falls during the South-West Monsoon, from June to October. Most of the rubber plantations are found in this region, especially on the western side, as well as nearly all the tea gardens. The latter are most numerous between Kandy and Nuwara Eliya. North and north-east of Kandy the cacao tree is grown, from which cocoa is obtained. Many of the valley sides are steep, but are very carefully terraced for the growing of paddy. A large amount of coffee used to be grown in Ceylon but, as in South India, it is no longer important.

¹ Comprising the Central Province, Province of Sabaragamuwa and the western, hilly parts of the province of Uva.

The old hard rocks which make up the mountain country are famous for gemstones—sapphires, spinel-rubies, moonstones, etc. There are hundreds of small gem quarries, especially where the gems have been washed out of the old rocks and into the gravels of the valleys, as around Ratnapura. Another important mineral is graphite, used for making lead pencils. The most important mines are in the Kurunegala District.

Kandy, the old capital, is in this region and is reached by a wonderful hill railway from Colombo, seventy-two miles away. *Nuwara Eliya* is a well-known hill station.

3. The Maritime Belt or Coastal Plain.¹—All round the mountainous centre of Ceylon there is a broad belt less than 1,000 feet above sea-level. Over this stretch the old hard rocks are hidden by a deep red soil of laterite. All along the coast, thrown up by wind and waves there are lines of sand dunes. Just as on the west coast of India, large brackish lagoons are found behind the sandy ridges. The climate of the maritime belt varies greatly. The western and south-western sides get a heavy rainfall from the South-West Monsoon, the south-eastern side is dry, whilst the eastern side is again wetter, receiving its rain largely in November and December from the North-East Monsoon. The wet low country is thickly populated and widely cultivated, especially on the west and south-west of the island. The level lands and the valleys are occupied by rice fields, yielding two crops a year, one after each monsoon. The higher lands towards the hills are covered by the mixed tree cultivation of the Sinhalese. Each farmer has coconuts, arecanuts, mangoes, jaks, or breadfruit together with yams, and small plants like pepper. On the borders of the hill country are rubber and tea plantations. All along the coast are groves of coconuts. The husks are allowed to soak and rot in the shallow lagoons and so the fibre (coir) is obtained. Industries connected with the coconut find employment for large numbers of people. The kernels are roughly dried for export as copra; even more important is the export of carefully dried or 'desiccated

¹ Comprising the Eastern Province, Southern Province, Western Province, most of the North-West Province and part of the North Central.

coconut' prepared in factories; there are also factories for the preparation of coconut oil. The preparation of coir is mainly a village industry. Arecanuts are also grown for export. Of the spices for which Ceylon has long been famous, cinnamon is the most important. The cinnamon tree likes a very light sandy soil and grows in those parts of the maritime belt where such a soil is found. The industry is less important than formerly. The cinnamon of

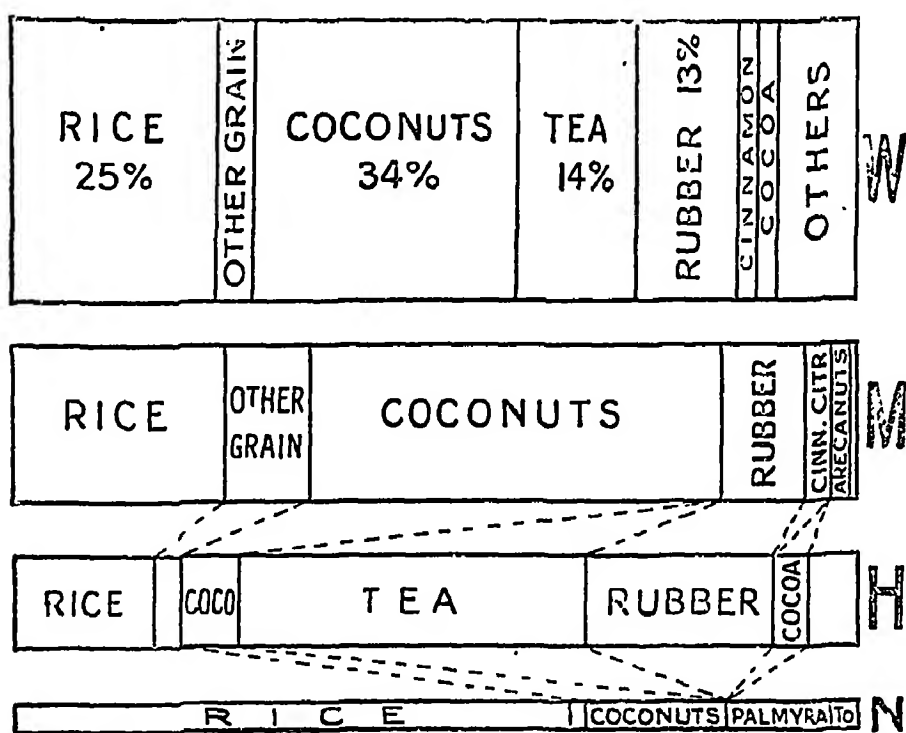


FIG. 138.—The crops of Ceylon and of its natural regions. The top diagram (W) shows the crops of the whole island; the next those of the Maritime Region (M); the next those of the Hills Region (H); and the bottom one those of the Northern Region (N).

commerce is obtained from the inner bark of young shoots. Other spices are cardamoms, cloves, etc. Citronella oil, prepared from a grass, is obtained mainly in the south-west of the island. The parts of the maritime belt away from roads and railways, especially in the dry parts of the south-east and in the east are very thinly populated and there is much waste land. This year (1925) a railway has just been completed across the island to Trincomalee, and should do much to open up the country. There is a branch to Batticaloa.

Round the coast fishing is an important industry. The boats of the fishermen are made either of stems of palm trees or planks of wood and are very narrow. They would roll over in the water but they have a log of wood on one side which forms a float. The float is not tied close to the boat itself, but six to twelve feet away, so that the boat is really like two boats joined together by two cross poles, but one of the boats is only a log of wood.

The capital of Ceylon, *Colombo*, is on the west coast. There is a bend on the coast which partly shelters a small harbour from the force of the South-West Monsoon. Now a fine breakwater en-

closes an artificial harbour (Fig. 139) and Colombo is not only the principal port of Ceylon but is situated on a great ocean highway from Europe to the far East. Colombo is a sea junction—like a railway junction but on the sea routes of the world—for here the main trade route goes on to Singapore and China, but there are branches from Colombo to Madras

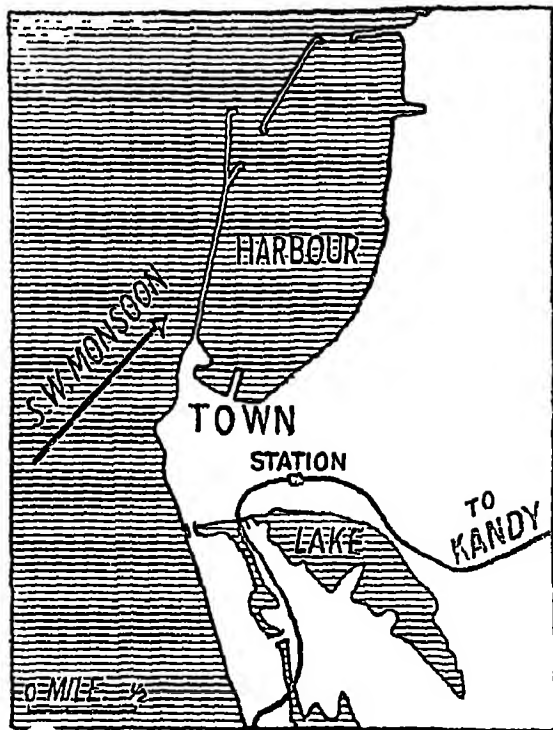


FIG. 139.—Sketch-map of the artificial goon and an important harbour of Colombo, showing how it is one to Australia. This protected from the South-West Monsoon. is shown in Fig. 162.

Before the harbour of Colombo was finished, *Galle* used to be the principal port of call. It has a pretty natural harbour, but one with a dangerous rocky entrance. The entrance is guarded by an old Dutch fort.

Trincomalee, on the north-east coast has a fine large natural harbour, but its hinterland is not important and the port is little used.

4. The Northern Limestone Plain.—Covering the whole of the north of Ceylon is a broad plain, which does not rise

more than 200 or 300 feet above sea-level. The plain is formed by a pale limestone, sometimes covered by a thin, bright red soil. Round the coast are sand dunes. Most of this region gets about 40 inches of rain, but the soil is dry and poor and there is much waste land covered with scrub jungle. The palmyra palm flourishes in this northern region. Cultivation is protected by numerous 'tanks', mostly very old. *Jaffna*, situated on the Jaffna Peninsula, is the most important town in this natural region. At the end of the Peninsula of Mannar is Talaimannar, the terminus of the Ceylon Government Railways, where steamers run daily to Dhanuskhodi, twenty-two miles away, the terminus of the South Indian Railway. South of the Mannar Peninsula is an area of shallow sea (the Gulf of Mannar) famous for its pearl fisheries.

5. **Communications of Ceylon.**—Colombo is the centre of the (broad gauge) Ceylon Government Railways. One line runs southwards along the coast to Galle and Matara, whilst the main line runs north-eastwards through the old historical town of Anuradhapura to Jaffna, with a branch to Talaimannar. Another line runs from Colombo up to Kandy and winds amongst the hilly country to Badulla, with a small branch to Nuwara Eliya. There are numerous excellent roads in Ceylon which link up outlying places with the railways.

An account of the trade of Ceylon is given in Chapter XLIII.

6. **The Maldivé Islands.**—The Maldivé Islands are a group of coral islands 400 miles south-west of Ceylon, and a dependency of Ceylon. There are about 70,000 inhabitants who are Mohammedans and ruled by a Sultan. More than half the people are fishermen, and the inhabitants are great traders. The islands are clothed with coconut palms, and very fine quality coir is produced and exported, mainly to India. Further north are the Laccadive Islands, ruled by the Government of India.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Compare and contrast the Maritime Region of Ceylon with (a) the West Coast of India and (b) the Carnatic Region.
2. What possibilities do you think exist for future development in Ceylon? Explain fully.

3. Colombo and Bombay are both very important ports. Compare and contrast them with regard to position, character and trade.

4. What is copra? Give an account, with sketch-maps, of the copra industry of India and Ceylon.

5. Write an essay on tea.

6. What do you know of the coffee industry of India and Ceylon?

7. Give an account of the products of Ceylon.

CHAPTER XXXV

BURMA—THE ARAKAN COASTAL STRIP

I. BURMA

Burma is the largest Province of India and is nearly twice as large as Bombay or Madras. Compared with most of the other provinces it is, however, thinly populated and has only 13,000,000 people.

We have already divided it into seven natural regions. One of these, the Western Hills Region, forms the mountain wall between Burma and Assam and has already been described under the Eastern Hills Region of Assam.

II. THE ARAKAN COASTAL STRIP ¹

1. *General Features.*—This natural region of Burma is the narrow strip between the Western Hills Region of Burma (the Arakan Yomas) and the sea. We shall see later that the Tenasserim coastal strip is similar in many respects.

In Arakan the strip of plain between the mountains and the sea is widest in the north and narrowest in the south. We see also that near Akyab there is a delta area and that in other places the sea has worn away the coast, leaving islands. The two most important islands are Ramree Island and Cheduba Island.

Seeing that the coast is much broken in these places, and that there are large numbers of islands behind which ships might shelter during storms, we should expect that there would be plenty of good harbours and large ports where they could load and unload their cargoes. But there are no large ports; Akyab is a busy place, but cannot be compared with Rangoon, and big liners do not go there. There are two reasons for this. One is that in many places the coast is dangerous because of rocks and shoals, and the

¹ Comprises the greater part of the Arakan Division (Districts of Akyab, Kyaukpyu and Sandoway), except the eastern mountainous parts; and the coastal strip of the Bassein District.

other is that a great port cannot grow up unless behind it is a large district full of people, who grow or manufacture things for export, and who can buy large quantities of goods brought by sea from other places. Behind the towns on the Arakan Coast, there is a narrow plain, backed by high mountains. We may notice that the most important port, Akyab, is situated where the coastal strip is widest.

2. Climate. — The Arakan Coastal Strip and the Tenasserim Coastal Strip are very wet regions—with more than eighty inches of rain. Nowhere else in Burma is the rainfall so heavy as it is in these Natural Regions. We

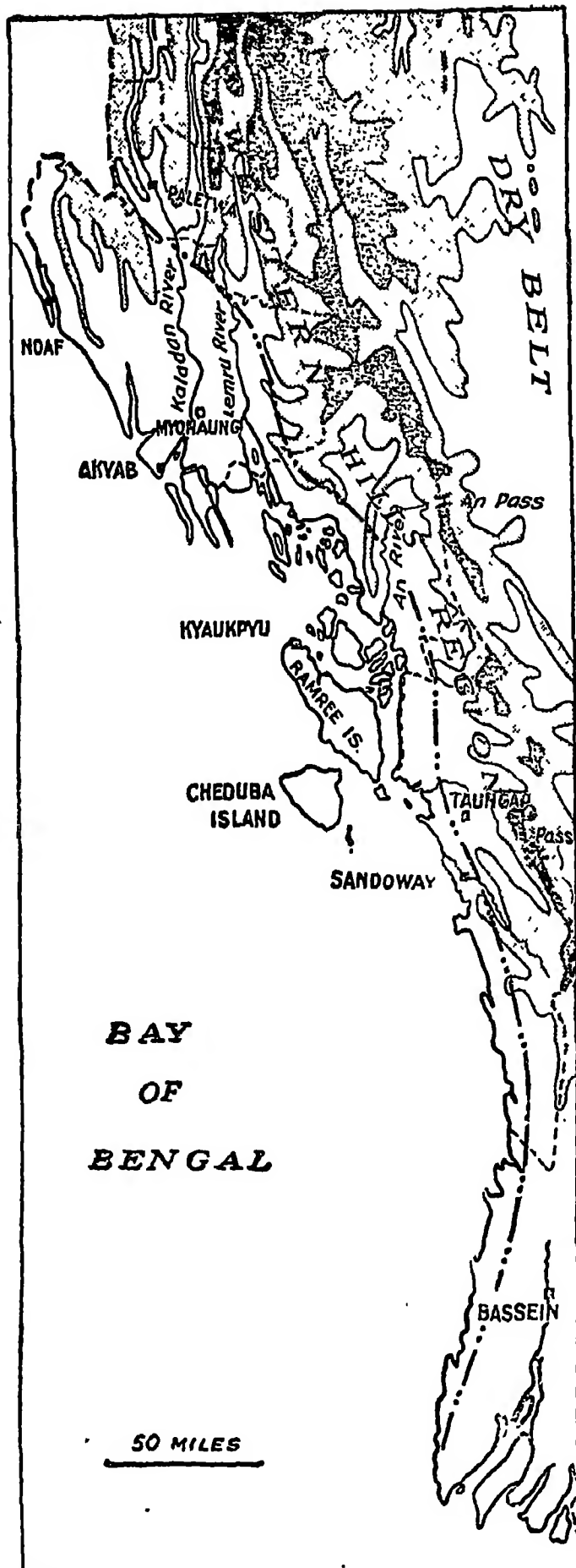


FIG. 140.—Arakan Coastal Strip.

should expect that, since the Coastal Strip Region is an area of heavy rainfall, the range of temperature would be slight. This is the case. In Akyab it is fifteen degrees. In the hot weather, the cool sea breezes that we read of at the beginning of Chapter V make the climate of the coastal strips much more pleasant than that of inland places.

3. **Minerals.**—If you look at Fig. 14 you will see that the Arakan Coastal Strip is built up of young soft rocks, and so we might expect to find mineral oil there. We do find some oil, especially near Akyab but there is not very much. That is because the young sedimentary rocks have been much folded by earthquake movements, and the oil which once existed has been squeezed out of them. At some places natural gas bubbles out of the ground and brings up mud with it, forming a 'mud-volcano'. Sometimes new islands are formed on the Arakan Coast by these mud-volcanoes. The natural gas is given off by the oil in the ground, just as water evaporates and gives off water vapour, except that the *whole* of the oil does not change to gas in this way.

4. **Crops.**—In the Arakan Division, only one-tenth of the land is cultivated. One-half of the land is not available for cultivation, consisting of hills and forests, but one-third of the land could be used and is not. Fig. 141 explains this.

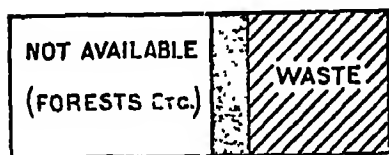


FIG. 141.—Proportion of cultivated land in Arakan. Cultivated land in black.

The fact that the Arakan Coastal Region is hilly and wet, and therefore covered in most places with thick forest or jungle, explains why half of it is not available for cultivation. But since the other half could be used for crops, why do not the people grow them?

The answer to this is in two parts :

(a) The whole area is thinly populated, so that there are not enough people to do the work required. (b) The climate is very hot and wet ; therefore, jungle grows very fast indeed, and the amount of work necessary to keep the jungle down is so great that each cultivator is fully occupied with working the piece of land he already holds without undertaking to cultivate new ground.

Rice, as you see from Fig. 142, is the chief product. The sea provides the second great product of Arakan—fish.

You learnt in Chapter VII that the teak tree will not grow where the rainfall is more than eighty or ninety inches. That is why the timber which is exported from Arakan is chiefly wood other than teak.

5. **Towns.**—The chief town in the Arakan Coastal Strip is *Akyab*. It has grown up because it has a good situation. We may notice that it stands in the widest part of the coastal plain; it has a sheltered harbour; the Kaladan River provides a road to the north, and the Lemru River provides another road into the hills



FIG. 142.—The crops of Arakan. F, fruits; D, dhani; C, chillies; T, tobacco; O, others.

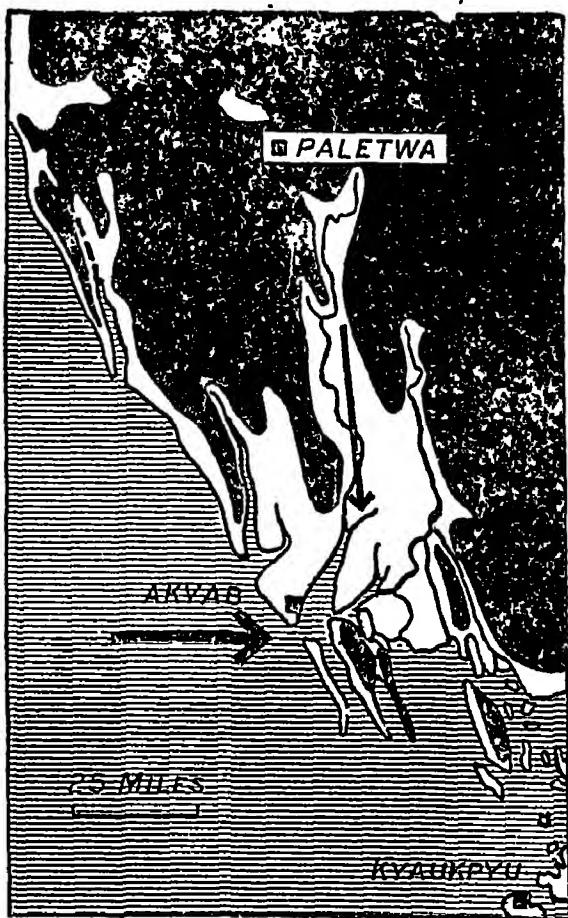


FIG. 143.—The position of Akyab. Land over 250 feet, black.

eastward. Also, Akyab is situated conveniently for the fisheries of the coast and of the islands around, and it is the nearest Burmese port to India. The advantages of its position are shown in Fig. 143.

Other towns and important villages are *Paletwa* (head-quarters of the Arakan Hill Tracts), *Kyaukp̄yū* (a rice port), and *Sandoway*.

6. **The Andaman and Nicobar Islands.**—Although not part of this natural region, the Andaman and Nicobar Islands may be mentioned here. Notice from your atlas that they form the continuation of the mountain chain of

the Arakan Yomas. Like the Arakan Yomas they consist of a number of ranges of hills running from north to south, separated by deep valleys. The whole is covered with

dense evergreen forest or other luxuriant vegetation. The native inhabitants are wild tribes of small people called Negritos with black curly hair; but they are dying out. Until recently the Andaman Islands were used as a convict settlement. Large numbers of prisoners were sent there, and a staff of guards to look after them. A number of the convicts have settled in the Islands after becoming free. The principal town of the islands is Port Blair on the South Andaman Island. The Nicobar Islands have large areas covered with coconuts.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Describe the climate of Akyab.
2. How could the productiveness of the Arakan coast be increased ?
3. Show why there are practically no railways in the Arakan Division. Do you think they would be useful ?
4. Find in your atlas coastal strips in other countries like the Arakan Coastal Strip.
5. What is a ' mud-volcano ' ?
6. Describe the geographical advantages of the position of Akyab.

CHAPTER XXXVI

BURMA—THE TENASSERIM COASTAL STRIP ¹

1. **General Features.**—We will next consider the Tenasserim Coastal Strip Region, because in many ways it is very like the Arakan Coastal Strip. It is separated from the Arakan Region by the broad area of the deltas, and so the two coastal strips must not be taken as one region, but as two very similar regions. The area lies between the crest of the Tenasserim Yomas and the sea. The other (western) side of the Yomas forms part of another natural region, but that is part of Siam. Like Arakan, the Tenasserim Coastal Strip consists of numerous parallel ranges. The strip is broadest in the north and narrowest in the south, and there is one important delta area. That is the delta of the Salween with Moulmein near the mouth of the river. Notice that its position in this region is very like the position of Akyab and the surrounding lowland in Arakan.

There are very many islands off the coast, the group to the south is called the Mergui Archipelago. As in Arakan, there are few large ports, for the country has few people and few important productions. The most important port, Moulmein, is situated where the coastal strip is widest and where there is a fertile plain producing much rice.

2. **Climate.**—The Tenasserim Coastal Strip is, on the whole, a little hotter than the Arakan coast, because it is nearer the equator. The range of temperature is even less than on the Arakan coast. In Moulmein and Tavoy it is only 9 and 10 degrees respectively. It is very wet, and many places have more than 200 inches of rain.

3. **Minerals.**—Although the climate is very like that of the Arakan Coastal Strip, the rocks which build up the Tenasserim Region are very different. They are old, hard rocks, old sedimentary rocks with many large masses of crystalline rocks. Valuable ores of tin and ores of tungsten or

¹ Comprises the whole of the Tenasserim Division,

vegetation grows so quickly that it is very difficult for cultivators to grow their crops and prevent them being

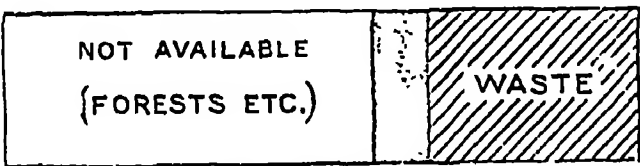


FIG. 145.—The proportion of cultivated land in Tenasserim. Cultivated land in black.

choked by weeds. Sometimes, too, the rain is so violent that it washes the poor cultivator's seeds out of the ground and destroys his crops. So we find that only one-tenth of the Tenasserim region is cultivated, and a great part of this cultivated area is in the alluvial tract near Moulmein. One-half or more is covered with forest, but one-third is described as 'waste'. The chief crops of the region are rice, fruit and vegetables, rubber, dhani, betel and sugar. The diagram, Fig. 146, shows you the proportion

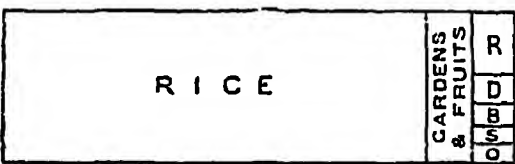


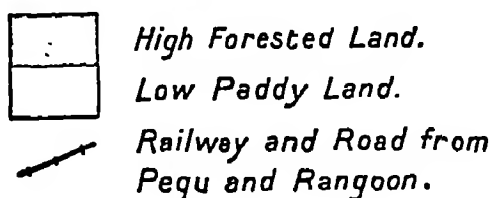
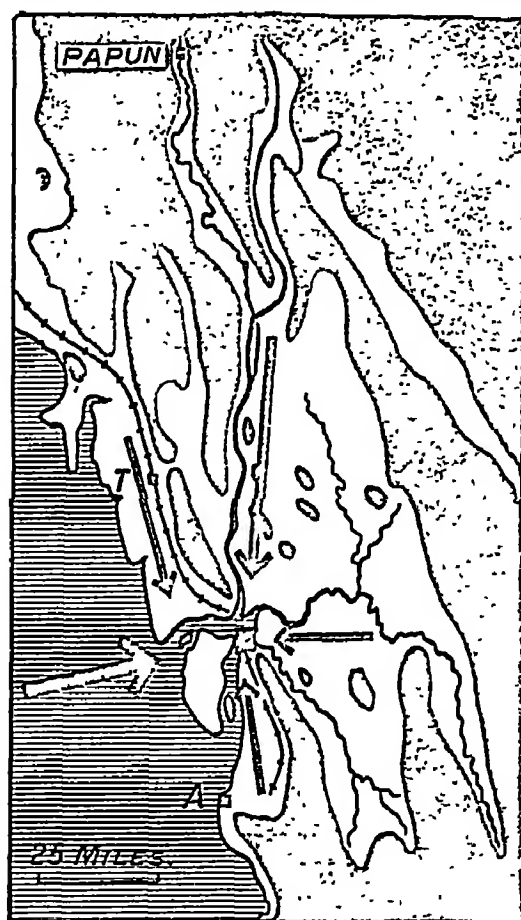
FIG. 146.—The crops of Tenasserim. R, rubber; D, dhani; B, betel; S, sugar; O, others.

of land devoted to each. Notice that rice is by far the most important. The rubber plantations are chiefly in Mergui and Tavoy.

We have noticed that there are many islands on the Tenasserim coast, and many arms of the sea run into the land. So the people have to use boats for travelling, and this has taught them to be fond of the sea. So we find they are great fishermen, and Mergui is famous for its salted fish and dried fish called gnapi. Pearl oysters are found in the sea around the Mergui Archipelago, and from them 'mother-of-pearl' and pearls are obtained.

5. Towns.—The most important town in this region is Moulmein (see Fig. 147), and there are good reasons why it

has grown to be an important place.



A. Amherst; note the gap-Town of Thaton (T.)

FIG. 147.—The position of Moulmein.

Martaban (the terminus of the railway, connected by ferry with Moulmein); other towns are *Amherst*, *Kawkareik* (a road town,) *Ye*, *Myittha*, *Tavoy*, *Mergui* and *Tenasserim*.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Draw two sketch-maps showing the similarity and differences between the Arakan and Tenasserim Coastal Strips.
2. Who are the inhabitants of Tenasserim? Describe their modes of life.
3. In what ways are the positions of Akyab and Moulmein similar? What advantages does Moulmein possess which Akyab lacks?

It is near the mouth of a great river, the Salween, and thus has a sheltered harbour. Unfortunately, owing to the silt brought down by the Salween, the harbour is full of shoals, and is not suitable for very large ships; but it is quite good enough for small steamers and sailing vessels. Then logs from the forests can be floated down the Salween to Moulmein. Thirdly, the road to Siam is not far away, and, fourthly, there is the railway from Pegu and Thaton, and the new railway southward to Ye. The advantages of the position of Moulmein are shown in Fig. 147. Notice in this figure, too, the position of Thaton, which is a 'gap' town. Opposite Moulmein is

CHAPTER XXXVII

BURMA—THE SHAN PLATEAU¹

1. **General Features.**—In Burma, that part named 'The Federated Shan States' is a plateau. Generally, it is between 3,000 and 4,000 ft. high. If you look at your atlas carefully, you will be able to find places which are more than 3,000 ft. high, and Fig. 148 shows you the parts which are less.

You will notice that the Salween passes through the plateau, and that the part east of the Salween is higher than the part west of it. The western portion is the more important, and the highest point in it is just south-west of Lashio. To the south of the plateau, but forming part of the same natural region, is Karenni. Here the plateau has been cut up by the action of rivers into a number of parallel mountain ranges. The inhabitants here are Karen and not Shan, as over most of the natural region.

2. **Crops.**—The 'grasslands' are the most important part of the Shan Plateau. On them cattle are reared, and crops grown. A great part of the Shan Plateau consists of limestone which is often more suitable for the growth of grass than for trees. The grasslands on limestone soil have one big disadvantage, unfortunately, that is that the soil is porous, and allows the water to soak through it. Therefore, although the Federated Shan States have a good rainfall, the water passes away too quickly, and does not stay in the soil. The result is that the best fields are those situated in the low-lying places where the water collects, and in such places the villages are situated. You may pass through miles of higher country and see but very little cultivation. But grass does not require as much water as other crops need. Therefore, the Federated Shan States are very suitable for the rearing of sheep, goats, horses and cattle. The rearing of these animals is one of the most important occupations of the plateau.

¹ The Federated Shan States and Karenni, with part of Katha and Mandalay Districts.



FIG. 148.—The Shan Plateau.

In the low-lying parts which are suitable for crops, rice is grown, potatoes, vegetables of all sorts, fruits (oranges, pine-apples, strawberries, etc.), and in some places, wheat. Tea is an important crop on the hill-slopes, and mulberry trees are grown because it is on these that the silkworm feeds. These districts, which are the most valuable parts of the Plateau, are inhabited chiefly by the Shans. The more hilly parts of the Plateau are of much less importance. There are valuable forests providing timber, but it is as yet little used. The Kachins and Palaungs, whose villages are to be found in the hills, generally grow only the crops they themselves need. Near the bottoms of the valleys, bamboo is plentiful. Lac is gathered all over the Federated Shan States. In the south, in Karenni, there are valuable teak forests in the valleys.

3. **Minerals.**—The Namtu silver and lead mines are very important. Find Namtu on your map. There silver and lead are found together, and are smelted in this industrial village hidden away in the midst of the hills. It produces a larger amount of wealth than any other place in the Federated Shan States.

At Mogok are the ruby mines, making another industrial centre. Near Kalaw at Loi-an, an attempt has been made to work the coal which exists there.

4. **Towns.**—The Shweli and the Myitnge provide gateways from Burma to China. Along both these roads there is a considerable Chinese trade. In the case of the Shweli, the trade has given rise to the important market town of *Namkham*, on the frontier where the Shweli enters Burma (Fig. 148). Most important of all the frontier towns is *Bhamo*, where the road trade ends and the river trade (on the Irrawaddy) begins. In the case of the Myitnge, the trade crosses the Kunlong Ferry. On the Myitnge itself, is *Hsenwi*, where the road begins to rise, leaving the Myitnge Valley to cross over into the Salween Valley. Mandalay is the place where the road trade ends and the river trade begins, in connection with this route.

Since the railway has been built up to Lashio, the road from Hsipaw to the plains has lost much of its importance, and the place which Hsipaw formerly held in the Myitnge trade is largely taken by Lashio.

To the east of the Salween, *Keng Tung* is the collecting

place for trade. If you study the map carefully, you will see that it is situated between the ends of two valleys—one pointing east to the Mekong River, and one pointing west to the Salween.

Taunggyi is the head-quarters of the Government of the Federated Shan States, and *Kalaw*, near the western edge of the Plateau, is a healthy place which provides a pleasant change in climate from the heat of the plains.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Why do the Federated Shan States form a Natural Region?
2. Draw a sketch-map to show why Taunggyi is a good centre of Government for the Shan States.
3. Do you think the Shan States will ever become an important part of Burma? Give your reasons fully.
4. Summarize all that you have learned about the trade routes between Burma and China.
5. State what the map tells you about the routes which Chinese invaders have used to invade Burma at various times in history.

CHAPTER XXXVIII

THE NORTHERN HILLS REGION OF BURMA ¹

1. **General Features.**—The natural region we have called the Northern Hills Region forms the northern part of the great Central Basin. It stretches from the 'mountain wall' which bounds Burma on the north as far south as the Dry Belt. Both the River Chindwin and the Irrawaddy have their sources in the northern part of this natural region, and, as we might expect, the land slopes gradually from the mountains of the north towards the south. On the west is the valley of the Chindwin, in the east are the Mali-Kha and the Mai-Kha, which join above Myitkyina to form the Irrawaddy. In the south, flowing through the middle of the region, is the River Mu.

The railway from Sagaing (connecting by ferry steamer with Mandalay) follows the Mu Valley, a little to the east of the river, and then runs north-eastwards to the River Irrawaddy at Myitkyina. From Myitkyina there is a mule track about 290 miles in length to Putao (Fort Hertz), the centre of the most northern district of Burma.

2. **People.**—The hilly and mountainous northern parts of this natural region are inhabited by hill-tribes. The country between the Chindwin and the Irrawaddy is the great Kachin area. Shans are also found there, especially as isolated patches in the valleys. The Hukawng Valley and the alluvial land around Putao are inhabited by Shans. Just on the borders of the Shan Plateau there are many Shans and Kachins and a few Palaungs. The fertile valleys of the Chindwin, Mu, and Irrawaddy are inhabited mainly by Burmans.

The famous jade of Burma comes from this region, and is brought over the hills to the railway at Mogaung. Amber comes from the Hukawng Valley, and there is one oilfield in the soft rocks of the Chindwin Valley.

¹ The North-East Frontier Division with the Katha and Upper Chindwin Districts of the North-West Border Division,

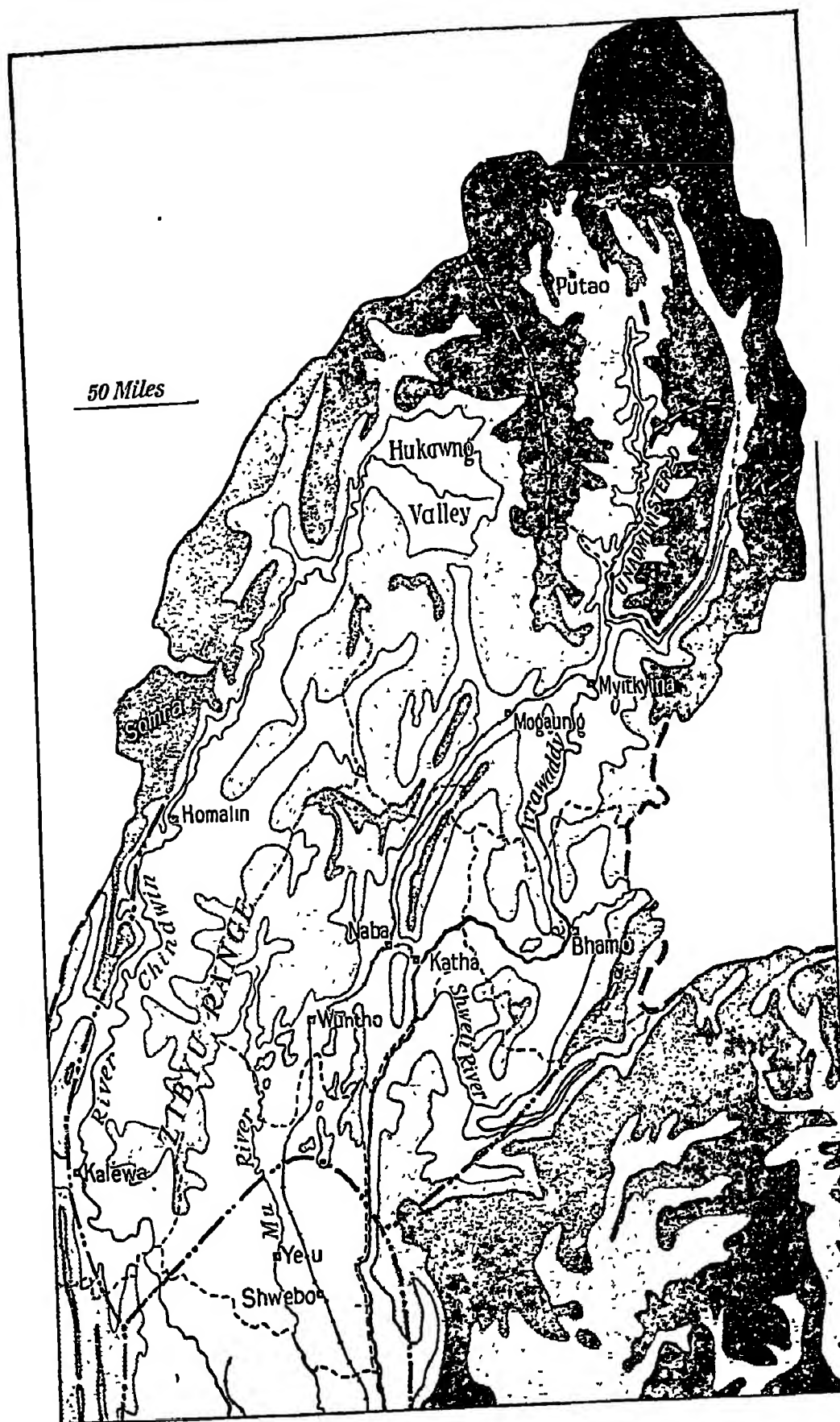


FIG. 149.—The Northern Hills Region of Burma,

Although Burma is surrounded by a mountain wall, these peoples—Talaings, Burmans, Kachins, Shans, originally came over the mountain wall from Tibet and have moved southwards. As we have seen, the Northern Hills Region slopes towards the south, and there has been a natural flow of people from north to south. The people move southwards, the products are sent southwards. Naturally the thoughts of the people are towards things in the south. As we say, their 'outlook' is towards the south. The people of the Arakan Coast live in a narrow strip of country with high mountains at the back and the sea in front. It is very difficult to climb over the mountains, but it is easy to move from one place to another on the sea. So we say their outlook is towards the sea.

3. **Crops.**—The mountains are clothed with dense hill-forest consisting largely of rhododendron, but with pines in places. Further south are rich monsoon forests, with teak and other trees, and where the forests are near the river timber is extracted. Rice is grown for the needs of the people, and in considerable quantities in some broad parts of the river valleys. In the north of Shwebo, just where the Northern Hills Region joins the Dry Belt, the fertile alluvial soil produces good grass, and there are large numbers of cattle. Although the flat valley land is very limited in extent in the Northern Hills Region, in the districts of Katha and Upper Chindwin there are large numbers of cattle, horses, sheep, pigs, and goats.

4. **Towns.**—There are few important towns in this region. *Kalewa* is a river-collecting station on the Chindwin, *Homalin* is the furthest point usually reached by steamers on this river. At the middle, in the Mu Valley, where the Northern Hills Region passes into the Dry Belt, is *Yeu*. Further north on the railway are *Wuntho* and *Mogaung*, villages situated at the foot of the hills and forming two of the centres to which the hill tribes come down to purchase luxuries. To Mogaung the jade is brought from the hills. On the River Irrawaddy is *Katha*. Notice from Fig. 149 that Katha is a gap town, and that there is a short railway running through the gap and joining the main railway. From Katha a steamer runs daily to Bhamo. Bhamo is a town which receives a large proportion of the overland trade from China.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Draw a sketch-map of the Northern Hills Region, putting in the principal valleys, and showing where the different inhabitants live.
2. Draw a sketch-map showing the advantages of the position of Mogaung.
3. Describe the vegetation of the Northern Hills Region.
4. What is meant by the 'outlook' of a people?
5. Although the Hukong Valley route offers a fairly good road from Burma to India, it is not much used yet. Can you give any reason for this?

CHAPTER XXXIX

THE DRY ZONE OF BURMA ¹

1. **General Features.**—The centre of Burma forms the Dry Zone. In the part of Burma shown in Fig. 150 there is less rainfall than anywhere else in Burma and the driest places are round about Pakokku and Myingyan. These places have just over 20 inches of rain in a year, and we may say that all places in Burma which have a rainfall of less than 40 inches belong to the Dry Zone.

About the centre of the Dry Zone the Irrawaddy flows in a south-westerly direction, and the junction of the Chindwin and Irrawaddy, that is to say, Myingyan, is in the middle of it. The region is generally flat, with the exception of the low range of hills which is the northern continuation of the Pegu Yoma. Mt. Popa is a high isolated mountain at the northern end of this range. We should expect that the rainfall on Popa would be rather more than that on the plain around it, and this is the case. Popa is a volcano, but it is now extinct, i.e., it no longer throws out lava and ashes.

2. **Climate.**—The Dry Zone is particularly hot in the months of March, April, and May because it receives no cooling sea-breeze, and the sun shines brilliantly on its level plains. In the months of December and January the Dry Zone is cooler, generally speaking, than the other parts of the Central Basin, because level plains which are far away from the sea cool very quickly.

The region gets less than 40 inches of rain in the whole year.

When the rain comes, the ground is often so hard and so

¹ Comprising roughly the whole of the Mandalay Division and the North-West Border Division except the mountainous western parts and except Katha and Upper Chindwin ; together with the Thayetmyo District.

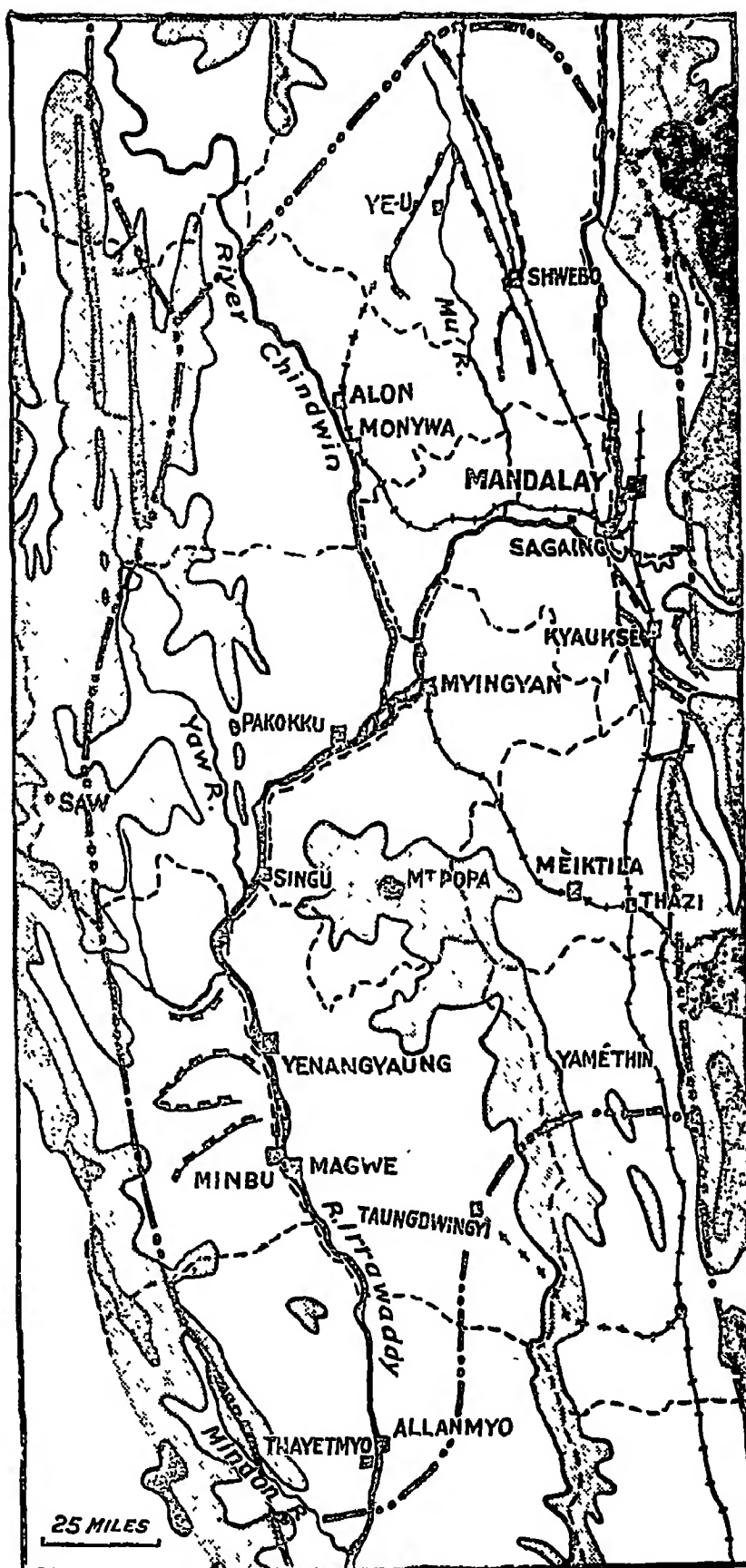


FIG. 150.—The Dry Belt of Burma.

dry that the water runs off and rushes down the ' chaungs ' and does not help the soil at all.

From the times of the early Burmese kings the people of the Dry Zone have built and used tanks and canals in order to provide themselves and their crops with water. Since Burma has been a member of the British Empire, the Government has spent large sums of money in improving these old canals and building new ones. The chief canals are shown in Fig. 150 by black lines. In the Shwebo District more than half of the land used for crops is watered by means of canals. In Kyaukse, $\frac{7}{10}$ of the crops are watered by canals; in Yamethin, $\frac{1}{3}$; in Mandalay, $\frac{1}{2}$; in Minbu, $\frac{1}{3}$. You will realize these figures more clearly if you study them in the following diagram in Fig. 151.

The land around Mandalay and Kyaukse is most valuable, because there more than one-half of the ground used for crops is so well watered by the canals that the fields easily give two crops a year.

3. Crops.—Rice is the greatest crop in all Burma, but the Dry Zone provides only a small proportion of rice. Yet even in the Dry Zone, rice is a very important crop. This

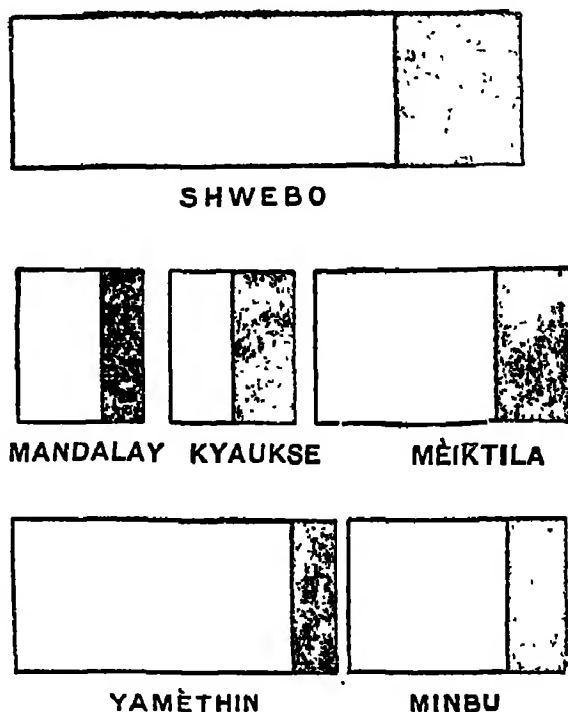


FIG. 151.—Proportion of irrigated crops in the Dry Belt (by districts). The total cultivated area in the principal districts is shown, with the irrigated portion in black.

region leads Burma in the production of white beans. Many other crops are also produced, and Fig. 152 shows the proportion of ground for each. After rice we see that the largest amount of ground is used for sesamum, millet and beans. Then come groundnuts, which like a very loose sandy soil, cotton, which grows on the rich black soil south-west of Mandalay and on the red gravel of the hills of Thayetmyo, and food for cattle. Tobacco grows

on the rich soil of the river banks, and maize in the damper places. Toddy, sugar, onions, and tomatoes are also products of the Dry Zone.

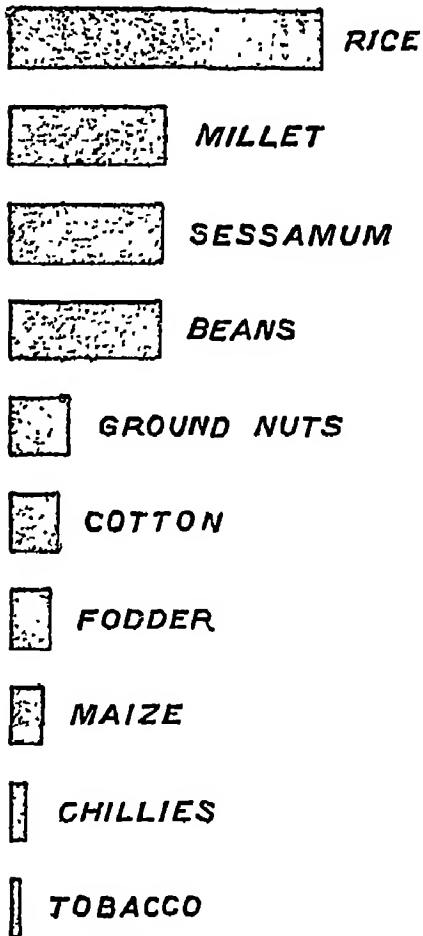


FIG. 152.—The crops of the Dry Belt.

4. *Minerals.*—You learnt in Chapter III that the young, soft rocks which build up the Dry Belt Region often carry oil. All the most important oilfields of Burma are found in the Dry Belt. They are Yenangyaung, Singu, Yenangyat, and Minbu. Many years ago the oil was obtained by digging wells, now holes 3,000 or more feet in depth are drilled by special machinery, and the oil is pumped up. The oil is then sent to Rangoon either by special oil-steamers or by a pipe which has been laid all the way from Yenangyaung to Rangoon (300 miles). Many ocean-steamers burn oil instead of coal nowadays, but Burma's oil is too good for that purpose. It is 'refined' in the 'Refineries' and split up into its component parts—petrol for motor cars, kero-

sene for lamps, and wax for candles. After rice, petroleum or oil and its products are by far the most important exports of Burma. The machinery used is imported largely from America. Here you see Burma must obtain the proper machinery and skilled operators from other countries before she can obtain the oil which is buried in her own land. The most important centre of the oil-mining industry is at Yenangyaung, but the most important refineries are near Rangoon—at Syriam on the Rangoon River.

5. *Towns.*—Several of the old Burmese capitals are situated in the Dry Zone, and are not very far away from one another. They are Mandalay, Amarapura, Ava, Shwebo, and

Pagan. There were good reasons why this part of the Dry Zone should be a good site for capitals in those ancient days.

In the first place, Burmans are a land nation rather than a seafaring nation. They came originally from the great continental regions, and only in historic times have displaced the Talaings and other inhabitants of the coastal regions. Now the capital of a land empire should be near the centre of the country. It must be in such a position that the communications in all directions are good; in order that the king may keep in touch with all parts of his dominions, and his armies can march to all parts of the country. In the second place, the climate should be healthy—as it is in the Dry Belt. The ancient capitals are near the centre of the country, and in such a position that communication in all directions is easy. The centre of the country is just about where the Irrawaddy flows west from Mandalay, and roads lead from this capital to all parts of Burma—one road goes north to Bhamo; another follows the Chindwin Valley; a third leads by way of the Myitnge River to the Chinese Frontier. There are also two roads going south—one, a river road, the Irrawaddy Valley, and the other the Sittang valley route.

In recent years Burma has made great progress and is taking her place amongst the nations of the eastern world. This means that much trade must pass between Burma and other countries.

The need for communication with the outside world explains why Rangoon is now a more suitable capital than one in the centre of the country.

Other towns in the Dry Zone have positions which are also very interesting to study.

We have two towns on opposite banks of the Irrawaddy—*Thayetmyo* and *Allanmyo*. They are there because they are on the border between the Dry Zone and the wetter region of the south. Through them the trade between the two districts must pass. Further north are *Minbu* and *Magwe*, which act as collecting stations for the products of the Dry Belt. The local goods are collected there and shipped down the river.

Monywa, *Mandalay*, *Pakokku*, and *Myingyan* are also 'River Ports'. Just as a port on the sea-coast collects trade from the land and sends goods by sea, getting in

return other goods brought by ships, so river ports, in exactly the same way, collect the trade of the land by road and send away goods and produce by river boats, taking in return goods brought to them from places in other parts of the river valley. A big cotton-mill has been opened in Myingyan to manufacture the raw cotton grown in the Dry Zone. *Pagan* is the centre for the lacquer industry. *Shwebo* is the centre of the northern part.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Describe the climate of the Dry Belt.
2. Draw a sketch-map of the Dry Belt, shading differently the parts producing most rice, cotton, groundnuts. How do you explain this distribution of crops?
3. Give an account, with sketch maps, of irrigation in Burma.
4. Draw sketch-maps, illustrating the position of Pakokku, Monywa, and Sagaing.
5. Draw a sketch-map of Burma, showing the oil-producing regions of Burma. How is the oil obtained, and where is it sent?
6. Draw a sketch-map to show the means of communication in the Dry Belt. Which routes are the most important?
7. Give an account of the river ports of the Irrawaddy, and describe the trade that goes on.

CHAPTER XL

THE DELTAS REGION OF BURMA ¹

1. **General Features.**—The great Central Basin of Burma is divided into three parts by its climate. We have studied the northern part which is the Northern Hills Region, the middle is the Dry Belt, and there remains now only the southern part, which we have called the Deltas Region. It includes nearly the whole of the Sittang Valley and the Sittang Delta, the greatest part of the Pegu Yomas, the Irrawaddy Valley from Prome southwards, and the Irrawaddy Delta.

To enable us to study it more carefully we may divide the region into three parts :—

(a) The Lower Irrawaddy Valley and the Delta. The apex of the Delta proper is at Henzada.

(b) The Sittang Valley and Delta.

(c) The Pegu Yomas separating the two valley regions.

2. **Climate.**—The temperature of this part of Burma is warmer than that of the Dry Zone in the cold weather, and cooler than that of the Dry Zone in the hot weather. It has a more equable climate. The rainfall of the Deltas region is everywhere good, and we notice that the rainfall increases gradually as we leave the borders of the Dry Zone and go southwards. Prome, which is just outside the Dry Zone, has 47 in., Henzada has 84, and Bassein 109 in. Most of the places in the Irrawaddy Delta have roughly 100 in., including Rangoon (99 in.). The Sittang Delta has rather more (Pegu, 128) and Toungoo in the Sittang Valley has 81. Everywhere the rainfall is sufficient for the growth of forests and for the cultivation of paddy. Now we will look at the three parts into which we have divided the Deltas Region.

¹ Comprising roughly the whole of the Rangoon Irrawaddy, and Pegu Divisions, except the District of Thayetmyo.

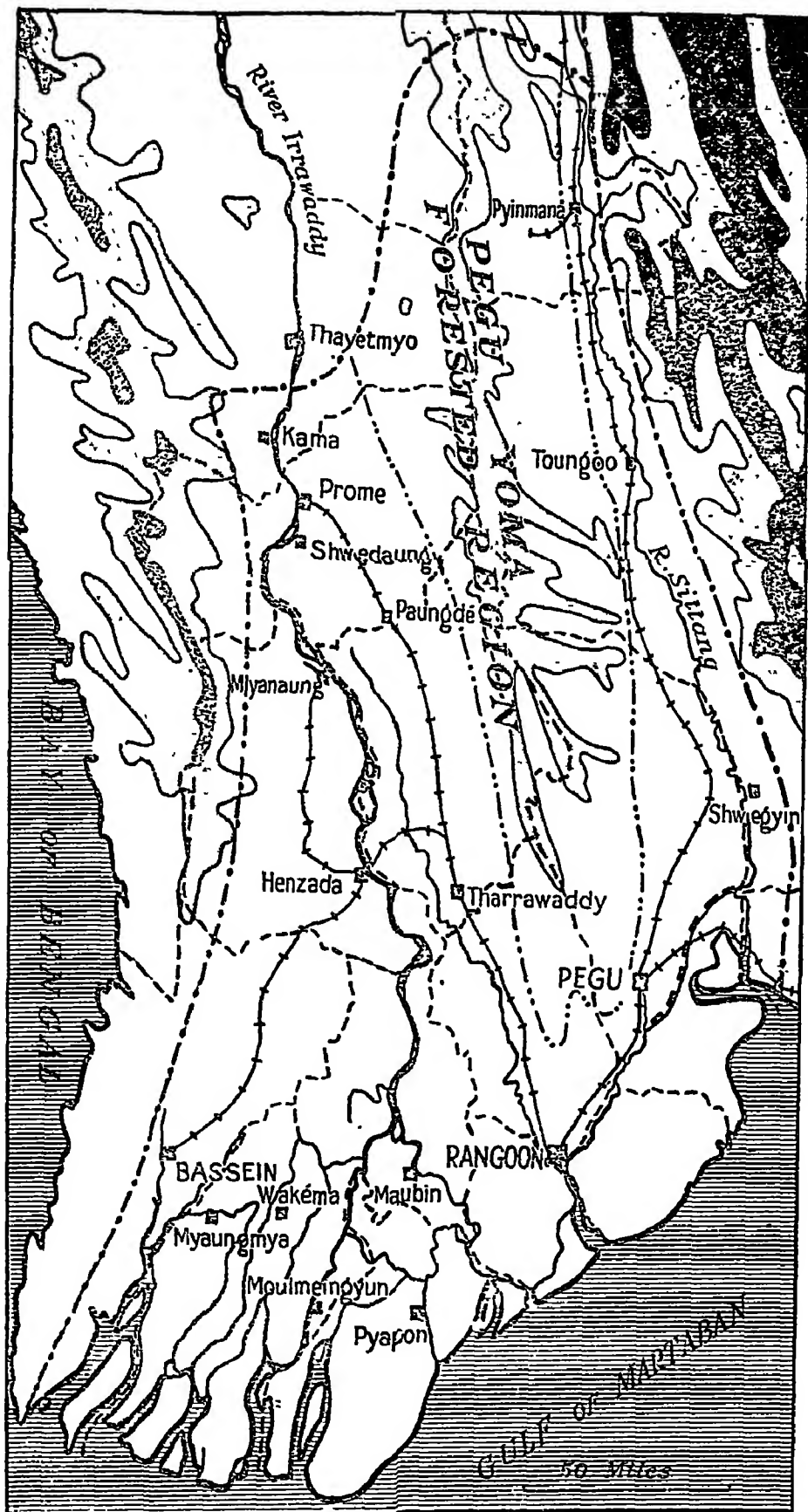


FIG. 153.—The Deltas Region.

3. **The Lower Irrawaddy Valley and the Delta.**—This is a piece of country with no high hills, and consists of soft alluvium. Now, alluvial soil is very fertile, and the level, fertile land with a proper rainfall is ideal for rice. More than half the paddy grown in the whole of Burma is grown in this area. As a result this is also the most thickly populated part of Burma (see Figs. 52 and 55). The inhabitants are mostly Burmans, but scattered amongst the Burmese villages in the Delta are villages inhabited entirely by Karens. Many Indians are employed as coolies. Naturally the villagers require other crops for their use besides rice, and so fruit and vegetables are important. Tobacco is another important crop; it is found on the rich alluvial soil of the river banks, which are covered during the high-water season.

A considerable amount of good land in Burma is wasted, and not used for cultivation. In the Delta less than a quarter is wasted. The rich, alluvial soil in a district with a heavy rainfall is far too valuable for it not to be used.

4. **The Sittang Valley.**—The Sittang Valley, is much narrower than that of the Irrawaddy, and its delta is much smaller. But they have the same rich, alluvial soil, and this much smaller area produces one-fifth of the paddy grown in the whole of Burma. The whole of the Deltas Region, as we see by adding this amount to that coming from the Irrawaddy Delta, produces 70 per cent of the total rice crop of Burma. The inhabitants of this thickly populated tract are also Burmans.

5. **The Pegu Yomas.**—The Pegu Yomas form a very different tract of country. They consist of fairly young rocks which are not very hard, and the mountains are not high—only a few peaks are more than 2,000 feet high. But almost everywhere they are clothed with fine forest. In the south, where the rainfall is 90 in. or more, it is ever-green; but the greater part is monsoon forest, that is, forest in which the trees are leafless in the hot season. Here and there, occupying clearings in the forest, are villages inhabited by Karens, but the Pegu Yomas are very thinly populated when compared with the valley tracts on either side. The Pegu Yoma forests are very important for their production of teak, which is, by far the most valuable tree. Better forests may be found in other parts of Burma, but none are so accessible, that is, none are so near where

the timber is required. So great has been the demand that these forests would probably by now be entirely cut down



RICE

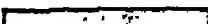







-  GARDENS & FRUITS
-  BEANS
-  TOBACCO
-  RUBBER
-  DHANI
-  MAIZE
-  BETEL NUTS
-  SUGAR

FIG. 154.—The crops of the Deltas Region.

if Government had not 'reserved' them and carefully looked after them. The Government Forest Officers survey the forests very carefully, and mark or kill by 'girdling' those trees which are old enough and big enough to be felled. Trees which are small and young are left to grow bigger. The trees are actually felled either by Government or by one of the companies who have leased the right to work timber. The logs are dragged into a stream—either by elephants or bullocks—and when the rains come are floated down into bigger streams. On the east

the logs float into the Sittang, and are then sent through the Pegu-Sittang Canal to the saw mills at Rangoon. On the west they are floated down a stream, which eventually becomes the Hlaing or Rangoon River. We must remember that timber, mainly teak-wood, is the third most important export of Burma—after rice and petroleum—but in 1922–23 was only one-fifteenth the value of the rice exported.

6. Towns.—It will be easiest to study the towns of the Deltas Region as we have studied the climate and productions, in sub-divisions. There are no towns of importance on the forest areas of the Pegu Yomas.

(a) *Lower Irrawaddy Valley*.—The chief towns are on the river bank, because the Irrawaddy is the great highway for this part of Burma. Examples of such river towns on the Lower Irrawaddy are Prome, Shwedaung, and Myanaung. Prome has always been an important town, because it is in that part of the country where the products of the Dry Belt give place to those of the wetter regions, and there is a considerable exchange of products. It has retained its importance because it is the terminus of the railway from Rangoon, and the point where the railway

traffic and the river traffic meet. *Myanaung* is an example of a town which has declined. It was once a great river port ; now its trade has been taken by Prome and Henzada, 'Taungdwingyi is in an interesting position. It is quite on the border line between the Dry Belt and the Pegu Yoma Forests. It may be compared to such a town as Mandalay, being a 'gap' town, and it commands an important route across the Pegu Yomas from the Irrawaddy to the Sittang. The towns at either end of the route are *Magwe*, a river port, and *Pyinmana*, a railway centre. A railway has recently been built from Pyinmana to Taungdwingyi.

Henzada is a 'ferry' town. It owes its importance to two facts: it stands at the apex of the Delta proper, and thus makes a kind of frontier town between the Delta proper and the Lower Irrawaddy Valley, and forms a centre of trade at which the peoples of these two areas meet; secondly, it is the place where the Rangoon line to Bassein crosses the Irrawaddy by railway ferry.

(b) *Sittang Valley*.—In this section we find an example of the effect of a railway on the development of a district. Almost all the important towns and villages of the Sittang Valley are those on or near the railways, like *Toungoo* and *Pegu*, while those towns which were once important, but are now not touched by the railway have declined, such as *Shwegyin*, which was once an important river port on the Sittang, but now has its trade limited to lumbering and rubber-growing. This decline is largely due to the fact that the river Sittang is of little use for navigation although of great value as a highway down which timber can be floated to Rangoon.

Pegu owed its importance in ancient times to the fact that that it stood at the entrance to the Sittang Valley. It is important now because it is a railway junction.

(c) *Delta*.—In the Delta section, Rangoon stands out by itself. The other towns may be classed as 'Delta collecting centres,' and will be considered later on.

The Port of Rangoon.—Rangoon is by far the greatest port of Burma. The Rangoon River provides a safe harbour and has a high tide; the whole of Burma, producing rice, oil, timber, beans, and many other things, and needing machinery and manufactured goods is its 'hinterland'; and the Irrawaddy and the railway provide communication and

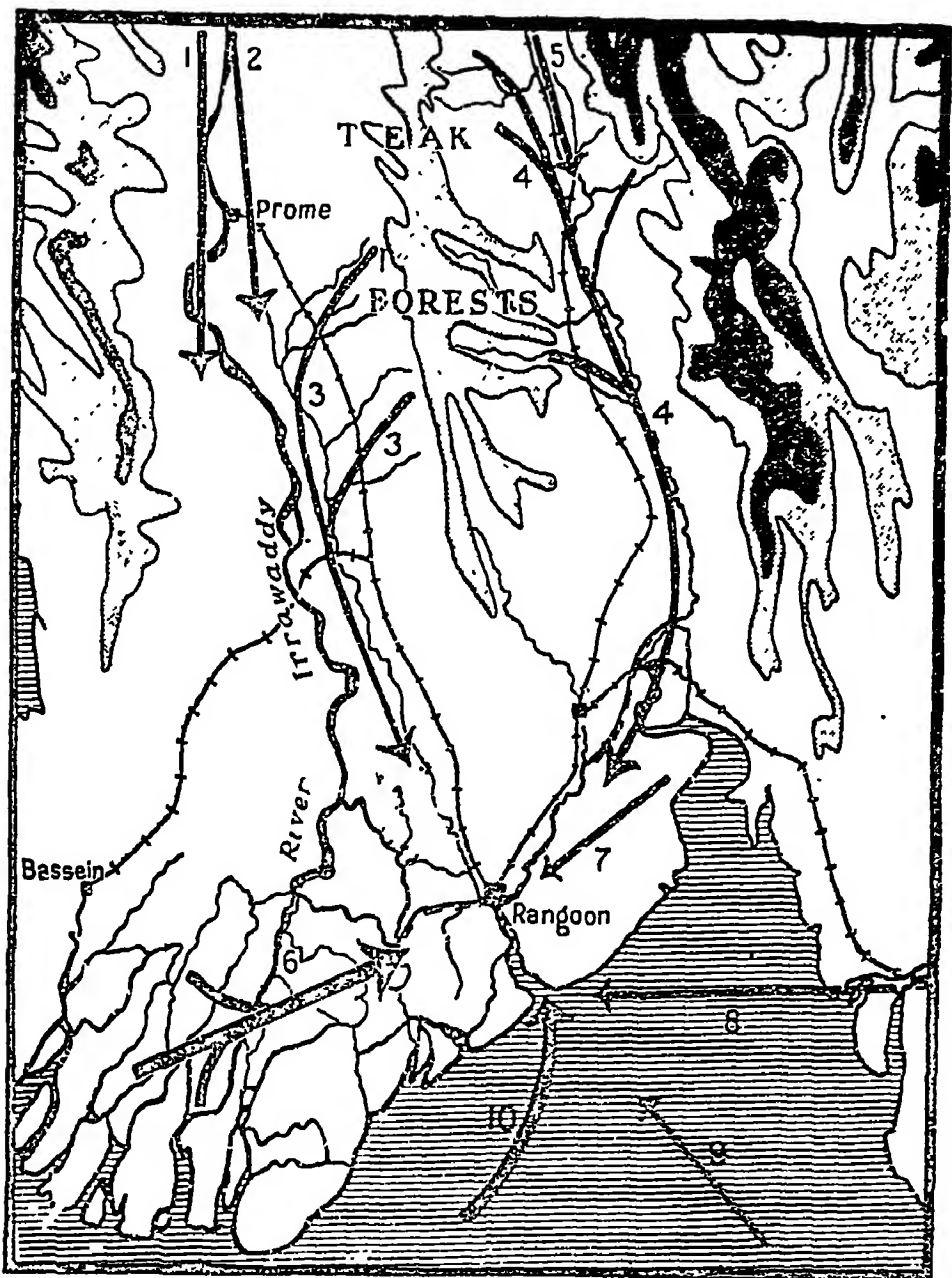


FIG. 155.—How the products of Burma reach Rangoon.

1. Products of the Dry Belt and timber from Upper Burma sent by river.
 2. Oil from the Yenangyaung and Singu Oilfields sent by pipe.
 3. } Teak and other timber from the Pegu Yoma floated down the
 4. } stream.
 5. Railway from Mandalay bringing lead from Namtu, and many products of Upper Burma.
 6. Paddy from the Delta sent by boat.
 7. Paddy from the Sittang Valley and Delta sent by boat.
 8. Paddy and timber from Moulmein.
 9. Tin from Tavoy, also goods from Japan, China and Java.
 10. Steamers from the Arakan Coast, India, Ceylon, and Europe.
- Notice that a town in any other position could not command the land and water highways of both the Irrawaddy and Sittang Valleys.

transport. Rangoon stands in a unique position. It stands on the southernmost spur of the Pegu Yomas, and commands both the Irrawaddy and Sittang Valleys. The products of the Irrawaddy Delta and Sittang Delta can reach Rangoon by water, but railway and road communications with the Irrawaddy Valley to Prome and Sittang Valley and Mandalay (*via* Pegu) are equally easy. Study Fig. 155 carefully.

Rangoon was a busy place two hundred years ago, but since Burma has become a member of the British Empire, it has leaped forward and has become one of the great ports of the world.

The most important of the 'Delta collecting centres' is *Bassein*. It is specially favoured by the fact that big ocean-going steamers can reach it, while the trade of the other centres is limited to river boats. Its population is 42,500, and its trade is almost entirely the export of rice collected from the Delta by means of 'paddy' boats.

Myaungmya, *Mauvin* and *Pyapon*, are other delta centres. To these, and to similar places, the cultivators of the Delta bring their paddy. Most of it is taken by boat to Bassein or to Rangoon, to be milled into rice and then exported. Fishing is an important industry in the Delta, the collecting centres dealing with this trade also.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Compare the positions of Bassein and Rangoon. Do you think Bassein will ever become as important as Rangoon? Give reasons.

2. A gentleman in Calcutta requires some teak wood for building. Show how the timber would reach him from the forest to Calcutta.

3. What is meant by 'hinterland'? Which has the more important hinterland, Rangoon or Moulmein, and why?

4. In what ways are the lower valleys of the Sittang and Irrawaddy Rivers similar, and in what ways do they differ?

5. Name the duties of the Government 'Forest Department' officers.

6. What is a 'gap town'? Give examples from Burma.

7. Give geographical reasons to show why the following towns have at various times been important in the history of Burma: Pegu, Toungoo, Prome, Ava.

8. Explain why Rangoon has become a greater port than Akyab, although Akyab is much nearer India.

CHAPTER XLI

COMMUNICATIONS IN INDIA

1. **Transport.**—When goods have to be sent from one place to another, two things must be considered: (*a*) the cost of the journey; (*b*) whether the goods will suffer damage on the way. Generally speaking, the cost of the journey is by far the most important consideration. The only cost which has to be thought of if things are sent by river is the wages of the crew and the original cost of the boat (unless a steamer is used). In the case of a railway, the cost is very much more, because a railway costs a very great deal of money to build, and, in addition, there is the cost of the trucks and engines, the coal or wood which is burnt, and the wages of men employed on the line. If goods are sent by road, there is not only the wages of the man who drives the bullocks or horses, but also the cost of the animals' food. A horse can pull about one ton of goods along an ordinary road, but he can drag a boat laden with forty tons of goods along a canal. We can therefore arrange the various means of transport in order of cost, beginning with cheapest—river, canal, road, railway. When it is important that goods should travel quickly, then the railway becomes the most important. Moreover, railways can be constructed exactly where man wants them to go.

2. **Rivers and Canals.**—India is plentifully supplied with rivers, but owing to the fact that the rivers of Peninsular India are nearly dry in the Hot Weather and the water of the northern rivers is used for irrigation, river transport is not very important. All the rivers of India are much more important now for their water, which can be used in irrigation. The irrigation canals are very little used for transport. In England and other parts of Europe the canals are used entirely for transport. There are now a number of good roads, but the most important means of communication in India are the railways.

Railways have now replaced all other means of communication to a very large extent. This is particularly the case in the Ganges Valley where there is a great network of railways. In Peninsular India the land is not so highly developed as it is in the plains of Northern India and there are not yet so many railways.

Let us take first the water routes of Peninsular India. There is an important water route along the West Coast from the north of Malabar to Travancore, the vessels making their way through a series of natural lagoons, aided by a few artificial cuts or canals. This is important because there is no railway running right along the West Coast and a sea journey from one part of the coast to another is dangerous owing to the poor harbours and the force of the monsoon (see Chapter XXV). In the deltas of the big rivers such as the Cauvery, Kistna, Godavery and Mahanadi boats are much used both on the creeks and the irrigation canals—there are few roads and few railways. The vessels are of all kinds and sizes; from large round wicker baskets used on some rivers of Madras, to large flat bottomed boats which carry salt. An important canal, called the Buckingham Canal, connects Madras with the canal system of the Kistna River and also runs sixty miles south from Madras. It is a salt water canal and runs close to the sea. Often there is only a line of sand dunes between the canal and the sea. It is important because of the dangers to boats going up and down the coast. Some of the rivers especially the short ones of the West Coast are important because they can be used for floating logs of timber from the forests to the coast town. Timber reaches Calicut in this way.

3. Roads.—Roads are of two kinds, 'metalled' and 'unmetalled'. You have probably seen a road being repaired and have watched the workmen spreading broken stones on the surface and then sand; finally a heavy steam-roller crushes the whole surface flat and makes it smooth. A road made in this way is a 'metalled' road, so called because the name given to the broken stone used is 'road metal'. You have seen also the rough roads between villages, dusty in the hot weather but thick with mud or even covered with water in the rains. No 'road metal' is used

for these roads and they are thus termed 'unmetalled'. Metalled roads are expensive to build and keep up. There are fair numbers in India; some are kept in repair by the Public Works Department of the Government (P. W. D.), others by District Boards. One of the most famous roads of India is the Grand Trunk Road commenced in 1828 to 1836 before railways were invented and which runs from Calcutta, through Delhi to Peshawar. It was completed in 1863-64. A loop road runs from Ludhiana through Ferozepore to Lahore.

There are three very important roads from Madras. One is the road to Calcutta, the second is the road to Calicut on the West Coast, the third the road to the frontier of Travancore. These roads were made before the days of railways and were then the only means of communication and so much more important than they are now. There are several important hill roads. One runs from the plains to Darjeeling, another from Ambala through Kalka to Simla. Both have now, however, been replaced by railways. But the Simla Road is continued to the Shipki Pass on the borders of Tibet. Another mountain road runs from Rawalpindi to Murree and Srinagar. The North West Frontier Province is also served by some good roads, so that the frontier can be easily reached in time of trouble.

Bullock carts are the chief means of transport on the roads. There are numerous 'unmetalled' roads between villages all over India, except in the Deltas and very wet lands of the West Coast. As their surface is not hard, it quickly becomes full of ruts and the 'roads' become difficult even for bullock carts. The 'roads' in the hilly regions are often mere tracks, wide enough only for pack mules. It is more expensive to construct a metalled road in the plains than in the hills for the stone has to be brought from considerable distances and great care is required to get a good foundation. It is fortunate that in the Punjab and Upper Ganges Valley concretions called 'Kankar' occur in the alluvium and can be used on the roads. It is no use piling broken stone on a soft stretch of paddy land. A metalled road must have a good foundation first. In the hills there is plenty of stone, but the roads often have to be made to wind over hills and portions of the hills may need to be cut away before the road can be built.

4. Railways.—By far the most important means of communication are the railways. You all know that railway trains run on 'lines'. Perhaps you have noticed if you have been far in India that all the railway engines and carriages are not of the same size. The most important

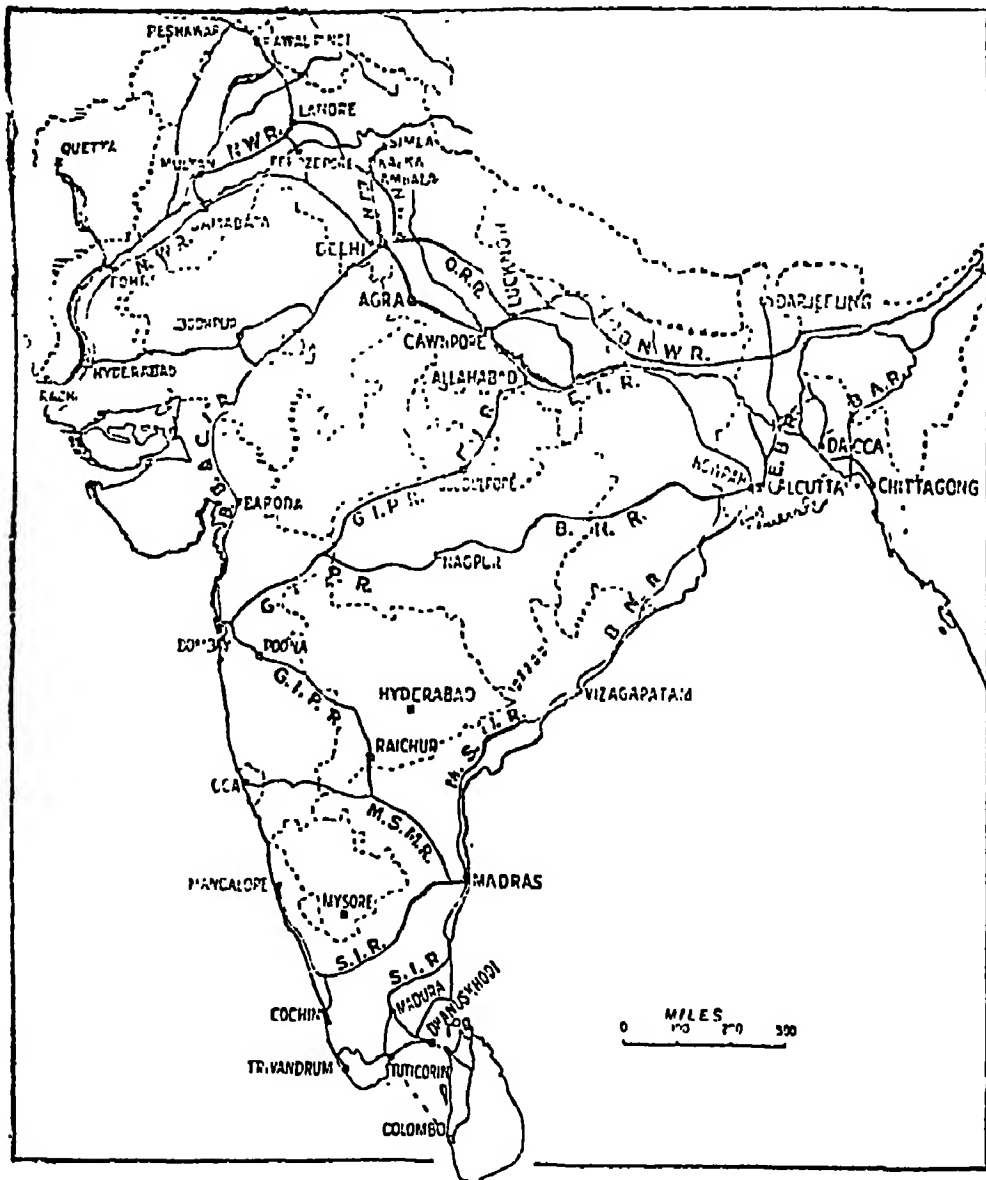


FIG. 156.—Railway Map of India.

thing of all in size is the distance between the two railway lines. If the lines are close together we can only have small engines and small carriages and travel slowly. If the two lines are far apart the engine and carriages can be much larger and can travel much more quickly. The distance between the two rails is called the 'gauge'.

In India there are two very important gauges, and two others much less important. The important ones are :—

(a) The Broad Gauge. The two lines or rails are 5'6" apart and the engines are big and heavy and the trains can travel very quickly. But the broad gauge railway is very expensive to build and the trains cost a lot of money to run.

(b) The Metre Gauge. The two lines or rails are one metre, or 3' 3½" apart. The engines are smaller and the trains are smaller and do not travel so quickly but they are less expensive to run. The metre gauge railway is less expensive to build and it has another advantage, the lines can be made to go round much sharper bends and curves than the broad gauge railway.

There are two smaller gauges, 2'6" and 2' which are used for local railways and hill railways.

There are nearly 38,000 miles of railway in India. Nearly half is broad gauge and rather less metre gauge. You should remember that in Europe and a great part of America quite a different gauge is used—called the standard gauge. The rails are 4'8½" apart.

5. Ports.—You will learn in the next chapter that the whole of the great area we have been studying in this book has six main ports—six outlets to the sea through which goods can be exported and other goods received in exchange. One of these ports, Colombo, serves the island of Ceylon, another (Rangoon) serves Burma, two serve Peninsular India (Bombay and Madras), one (Calcutta) is the outlet for North-eastern India, whilst the products of North-western India pass mainly through Karachi. These ports are of the greatest value to India and it will be easiest to study the Railways of India by taking each port in turn and seeing what railway lines serve it.

6. Bombay.—Let us take the railways which start from the great port of Bombay and run to all parts of its hinterland. There are four great main lines :—

(a) One running north to Baroda and Delhi and connecting at Delhi with the railways into the Punjab and the North-west of India. This railway is the Bombay-Baroda and Central India Railway and thus joins Bombay with the capital of India—Delhi.

(b) One running north-eastwards, passing through a

gap in the Western Ghats, into the Central Provinces to the town of Jubbulpore. This is the Great Indian Peninsular Railway. At Jubbulpore it joins the East Indian Railway and goes on to Allahabad on the River Ganges and then runs on down the Ganges Valley to Calcutta and so this is one of the direct routes from Bombay to Calcutta and is followed by the trains which carry the European mails from Bombay to Calcutta. Remember that Calcutta is east of the Hooghly River and all trains stop at Howrah Station to the west of the River.

(c) There is also another which at first is the same as the last but when it enters the Central Provinces runs directly eastwards to Nagpur. This is also a main line of the Great Indian Peninsular Railway. At Nagpur it joins the Bengal-Nagpur Railway and runs on to Calcutta. It forms a shorter route from Bombay to Calcutta than the last, but it has to cross numerous valleys which cut up the Plateau of Peninsular India and so the trains cannot travel so rapidly as they do on the flat plain from Allahabad to Calcutta.

(d) The fourth route runs south-eastwards from Bombay, through another gap in the Western Ghats, past the town of Poona, through the State of Hyderabad to Madras. This is also part of the Great Indian Peninsular Railway as far as Raichur, where it joins the Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway.

All these railways are broad gauge lines.

7. Madras.—Now let us look at the railways which run from the city of Madras. Again there are four principal lines.

(a) One runs northwards and then north-eastwards from Madras following the coast. This is the broad gauge Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway. It crosses the Rivers Kistna and Godavari by two magnificent bridges and runs as far as Waltair (near Vizagapatam) where it joins the Bengal-Nagpur Railway and continues to Calcutta.

(b) The other main line of the M. and S. M. Railway runs north-westwards to Raichur and joins the G.I.P.R. forming the direct route to Bombay. We have already mentioned this route.

(c) Running westwards from Madras is the broad gauge main line of the M. and S.M. Railway and the South

Indian Railway. It passes through the Palghat Gap, between the Nilgiri Hills and Cardamom Mountains and so reaches the West Coast, where it runs northwards as far as Mangalore. There is a branch to Cochin.

(d) Running southwards from Madras there is another main line of the South Indian Railway, but it is a narrow gauge line. It passes through Trichinopoly. More important now is the line from Madura to Pamban and Dhanuskhodi Pier from whence a small steamer runs across the 22 miles of shallow strait to join the Ceylon Railways. This is the route now followed by the mails from Madras to Ceylon. There is another branch into Travancore, ending at Trivandrum.

There are, of course, many other railways in Peninsular India. An important one runs to the port of Goa on the West Coast. Study the others in your atlas. Notice how all the important railways follow the easiest routes from the plains to the plateau.

There is one interesting little railway, we may notice. That is the Nilgiri Mountain Railway which takes passengers and goods up to the hill station of Ootacamund in the Nilgiris. It is a very small railway and specially made so that the trains cannot slip backwards when they are going up the very steep parts.

8. **Calcutta.**—Starting from Calcutta there are three very important lines:—

(a) The Eastern Bengal Railway serves nearly the whole of Bengal, except to the west and north-west of Calcutta. South of the River Ganges it is a broad gauge railway and there is now a fine bridge over the River Ganges at Sara. But north of the River Ganges nearly all the lines are metre gauge lines. You will notice from the map how much this railway depends on steamers. The Eastern Bengal Railway is interrupted by rivers in at least five places. There is one piece of the railway called the Dacca Section which is quite cut off from the other parts. The river is too broad to be crossed by railway bridges, it must be crossed by ferry steamers which connect with the trains. Notice too that the Eastern Bengal Railway is a railway which includes both broad gauge and metre gauge. The engines and trains used on the broad gauge sections cannot of course be used on the metre gauge and

passengers have to change from one train to another at all places where the gauge changes. The Eastern Bengal Railway connects with the little hill railway running up to Darjeeling.

(b) The East Indian Railway provides the great line of communication between Calcutta and the rich Ganges Valley. It is a broad gauge railway and runs from Calcutta to Delhi and Ambala and there connects with the North-Western Railway and goes on to Lahore and Peshawar. Notice that it remains the whole time to the south of the River Ganges but connects with all the great towns—Bhagalpur, Patna, Benares, Allahabad, Cawnpore, and Agra. Most of the railways in India are only single lines, so that trains can only pass one another at stations where the line is made double, but the East Indian Railway has a double line the whole way from Calcutta (Howrah) to Allahabad. The East Indian Railway also serves the coalfields of Western Bengal.

(c) The Bengal-Nagpur Railway is another broad gauge railway. Its main line runs direct from Calcutta (Howrah) to Nagpur and from Nagpur the Great Indian Peninsular Railway runs direct to Bombay. We spoke about this route above. The Great Indian Peninsular Railway is also a broad gauge railway, so trains run direct without any change right across India from Bombay to Calcutta. A second main line of the Bengal Nagpur Railway runs through Orissa and right down the east coast of India and connects with the railway to Madras.

Now we must consider the network of railways which is found in the Ganges Plain, north of the River Ganges. In the Middle Ganges Valley Region—that is in Northern Bihar and the eastern part of the United Provinces—is the Bengal and North-Western Railway with its great network of metre gauge lines connecting great towns like Gonda, Gorakhpur and Darbhanga with the river towns such as Allahabad, Benares, Patna and Bhagalpur. The Bengal North-Western Railway collects all the agricultural produce of this region.

In the United Provinces there are several different railways which between them form a network covering the plain north of the River Ganges. The principal ones are the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway (mostly broad gauge);

the Rohilkhand and Kumaon Railway (metre gauge) and branches of the Bombay, Baroda and Central Indian Railway (metre gauge). Running through the Central Indian Plateau is the Great Indian Peninsular Railway, one of the greatest railways in all India. It has a very important line running from Bombay and Central India to Jhansi and then dividing into two branches, one of which terminates at Cawnpore and the other at Allahabad.

9. Karachi.—From Karachi the broad gauge line of the North-Western Railway runs to Hyderabad where it branches. One branch runs right across the Great Desert and into the Rajput Upland Region, through Jodhpur till it joins the main line of the Bombay-Baroda and Central India Railway from Bombay to Delhi. There is a junction just before Jodhpur from which passengers can go direct to Bombay. This railway across the desert connects Karachi with Delhi and Karachi with Bombay.

The other branch from Hyderabad follows the Indus Valley into the Punjab. At Rohri Junction a branch line crosses the Indus, passes by Sukkur and runs up through the Bolan Pass to Quetta in Baluchistan and on to the border of Afghanistan.

At Samasata Junction in the Punjab the main line from Karachi branches, one line crosses the Sutlej to Multan and Lahore, the other continues as the Southern Punjab Railway and curves round the north of the Indian Desert to Delhi.

Now let us look at the network of lines in the North Punjab Plains. Delhi is directly connected with Calcutta by the East Indian Railway (E.I.R.) and with Bombay. From Delhi to Lahore there are three routes.

(a) N.W.R. through Ferozepur.

(b) N.W.R. through Ambala.

(c) E.I.R. to Ambala and then along N.W.R.

From Ambala a line runs to Kalka in the foothills, where the hill railway to Simla starts.

From Lahore the main line runs to Peshawar, crossing the Jhelum at Jhelum and the Indus at Attock. There are important branches along the south of the Salt Range down the Indus Valley through Mianwali and across the Indus to Kohat and by ferry to Bannu. All these railways are part of the N.W.R. and most are broad gauge.

10. Chittagong.—The little Port of Chittagong is served by the Assam-Bengal Railway. It is a metre gauge railway and runs from Chittagong through the fertile Surma Valley, across the Eastern Hills Region into the Brahmaputra Valley. Notice the branch which goes to Sylhet and notice too the important roads which serve as 'feeders' to this railway.

11. Now let us look at the Railway Time-tables and see what we can learn about the distances between places and the time it takes to travel between them. Follow these journeys on the map in your atlas. Suppose we wish to travel by express train from Calcutta to Madras on the broad gauge B.N. and M.S.M. Railways. We can leave Calcutta (Howrah Station) at five o'clock in the evening. When we wake up at six next morning we are at Berhampore—(375 miles); by midday we reach Waltair (500 miles) (Vizagapatam). It is just getting dark when we cross the Godavari River by the fine bridge and we shall reach Madras on the next morning at eight having travelled 1,030 miles in 37 hours or nearly 700 miles a day. Big ocean steamers only travel about 300 miles in one day.

Now let us make another journey—from Calcutta to Bombay again on a broad gauge railway. We can go two ways; one from Howrah to Nagpur by B.N.R. and then by G.I.P.R. and the other from Howrah to Allahabad and Jubbulpore (E.I.R.) and then by G.I.P.R. The first is 1,220 miles, the other is 1,350 miles, but both take about 39½ hours or about 800 miles a day.

Let us now take the main line of a metre gauge railway, the South Indian Railway from Madras to Dhanushkodi Pier (for Ceylon). It is only 460 miles, but takes 21 hours or only 500 miles in a day. Most metre gauge railways are even slower.

12. In Chapter II you learnt that India is shut in on the north and east by the wall of mountains. Notice that no railway cuts through this wall. The terminus of the Assam-Bengal Railway is only about 160 miles from Myitkyina, the terminus of the Burma Railways. Yet to go from one place to the other the easiest and quickest way would be to go to Calcutta, then by boat to Rangoon and then to Myitkyina by train—a journey of nearly 2,000 miles in all instead of 160 miles.

We find then, that the railways of north-eastern India are limited (a) by mountains, (b) by broad rivers. You learnt in Chapter XXV and Chapter XXVII that the railways follow the easiest routes from the plains on to the plateau.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. How would a man travel from Bombay to Trivandrum (during the S.-W. Monsoon)? From Madras to Delhi? From Delhi to Dacca? From Darjeeling to Chittagong? Karachi to Peshawar? Why would he travel the way you suggest?

2. If on an average you can travel 600 miles a day by train, 200 miles a day by motor car, 50 by steamer, and 15 by bullock cart, how long would it take you to reach the following places from Bombay and how would you go :—Ootacamund, Goa, Comorin and Mercara. Use an atlas for this question. Also from Calcutta to Maupur, Shillong, Srinagar.

3. Is there any reason for the direction followed by railways from Bombay?

4. Draw diagrams illustrating the importance of the position of Chittagong, Cawnpore, Allahabad, Sukkur, Waltair, Palghat Gap, Dhanuskhodi Pier, Cochin, Poona, in connection with railways? Use your atlas for this.

5. What is meant by 'hinterland'? Draw a sketch-map of the hinterland of Madras and Tuticorin.

6. Explain the advantage of improving means of communication and illustrate your answer from what has happened in your own district.

7. Look at Fig. 156. The nearest way from Madras to Bangalore is through Mysore. Why does not the railway go that way?

8. Get an old copy of Newman's *Indian Bradshaw*. Look at the railway map and work out the journey from your own home to Bombay, Madras, Calcutta or any other place you would like to visit.

CHAPTER XLII

COMMUNICATIONS IN BURMA

1. Rivers.—Burma is plentifully supplied with rivers, and, owing to the low cost of river transport, this is the most important form of communication in the country. There are canals in Burma, but they are nearly all for the purpose of irrigation, and are not used for transport. There are not many good roads in Burma outside the towns so that, generally speaking, if goods are not sent by river, they must be sent by railway. From the earliest times, the River Irrawaddy and its tributary, the Chindwin, have formed the great highway of Burma, and the construction of the railway has not decreased their importance to any great extent. River steamers can travel on the Irrawaddy from the sea to Bhamo at all times of the year, a distance of about 700 miles. In the rains, the Irrawaddy is a broad, deep river, nearly two miles wide at Bhamo, but in the dry season it is difficult work to navigate even flat-bottomed boats, for the river then has much less water in it, and there are sandbanks and islands which move their position from year to year, so that many towns on the river banks are left at considerable distances from the water's edge. The Chindwin is navigable in the rains from its junction with the Irrawaddy up to Homalin, 330 miles, but its stream is rapid and contains many whirlpools and shallow places.

In the Delta, the many mouths of the Irrawaddy and the thousands of creeks which connect them form almost the only means of communication.

We thus can divide the river communications of Burma into four sections: (*a*) Chindwin; (*b*) Irrawaddy, between Mandalay and Bhamo; (*c*) Irrawaddy, between Mandalay and Henzada; (*d*) Delta creeks. We will deal with each of these in turn. The Salween is not much used because of the rapids about 100 miles from its mouth. It is navigable higher up in the Shan States, but goods brought down

have to be unloaded and carried across to Papun, and sent down the rest of the journey to Moulmein from there.

(a) *Chindwin*.—Steamers travel up the Chindwin at all times of the year as far as Pantha and Mawlak, and in the rains can reach Homalin, which, as we have seen, is 330 miles from the junction with the Irrawaddy. The trade along the river is not very important because the greater part of the course is included in the Northern Hills Region, which is not very productive (see Chapter XLI), and the valley in most places is narrow. For this reason there are not many 'river ports' along its course. The chief are Homalin, Pantha, Kalewa, Alon, and Monywa.

Homalin is an example of a town or village situated at 'the head of navigation.'

Pantha is the river port for the small oilfield of Indaw.

Kalewa is the 'port' for the Chin Hills, and is situated where the Myittha River joins the Chindwin. The Myittha from Kalembo southwards is navigable for country boats, and flows through a fertile valley. At Kalembo the river is joined by the road to the Chin Hills. Unfortunately, between Kalembo and Kalewa there are rapids, and goods have to be carried by land for a short distance.

Alon and Monywa are the river ports for the district west of the Zibyu Range, just as Sagaing is the river port of the district east of it. Both Alon and Monywa are connected with Sagaing by railway, and at these places many goods are unloaded from the Chindwin steamers and sent to Sagaing and Mandalay. Compare Prome.

(b) *Upper Irrawaddy, between Mandalay and Bhamo*.—This part of the Irrawaddy, like the Chindwin, is very beautiful. In three places, the river passes through narrow gorges known as the Defiles. The First Defile is thirty-five miles long, near Sinbo, above Bhamo. The Second Defile is between Bhamo and Shwegu village, and the Third is near Thabeik-kyin. The trade on the Upper Irrawaddy is more important than that of the Chindwin, for whereas the Chindwin carries only the trade of the hills and the narrow valley strip, that of the Upper Irrawaddy not only deals with the products of the hills on either side, and the valley strip, but is also fed by the two land routes from China—the route along the River Taping leading from Tengueh in Yunnan straight to Bhamo, and the route along the Shweli

River Valley which meets the China frontier at Namkham and ends on the Irrawaddy near Katha. Thus the chief 'river port' on this section of the river is the place where the goods brought by the land route on mules are transferred to the steamer, namely, Bhamo.

Thabeik-kyin is the river port for the ruby mines of Mogok.

(c) *The Middle Course, Mandalay to Henzada.*—This is the main highway of Burma. At its northern end the trade of the Northern Hills Region and the trade from China are connected; it passes through the Dry Zone, and also through the rich Lower Irrawaddy districts of Prome, Henzada, and Tharrawaddy. This explains why there is a string of 'river ports' strung out along its length, the chief being Mandalay; Sagaing, Myingyan, Pakokku, Chauk, Seikpyu, Yenangyaung, Minbu, Magwe, Minhla, Allanmyo, Thayetmyo, Prome, Shwedaung, Myanaung, and Henzada.

The situation of Mandalay has been fully discussed in Chapter XXXIX. All that has been said there shows that Mandalay is naturally a collecting place for the products of the districts round about it, and also forms a convenient centre from which goods from other districts or from other countries can be distributed.

Sagaing is the river port for the rich agricultural and irrigated lands of the Mu Valley, and its importance has increased because it is now the terminus of two railways, one going to Shwebo and Myitkyina, and the other to Monywa and Alon. These railways are connected by ferry with the main Mandalay to Rangoon line.

Myingyan is the river port for the Dry Zone east of the Irrawaddy, just as Pakokku is the river port for the Dry Zone west of the river.

Seikpyu is very like Kalewa, for here the route leading up the Yaw Valley into the Pakokku Hill Tracts meets the Irrawaddy.


Yenangyaung is the oil centre of Burma, and Chauk is the river port for the oilfield of Singu. Magwe and Minbu are on each side of the river, like Myingyan and Pakokku, and are river ports for the areas behind them. There are also Allanmyo and Thayetmyo.

Prome is the terminus of the railway from Rangoon and forms the junction between the river road and the rail road.

It takes about five days for goods to reach Rangoon from Prome by river, but only about twelve hours by train, so that some goods are taken from the boats and put on the railway at Prome.

Henzada owes its importance to three things : (a) it is a 'Ferry' town, i.e. where a road, the railroad, crosses the river ; (b) it is on the border between the Delta and the Lower Irrawaddy area ; and (c) it is the most northerly part of the Delta itself.

(d) *The Delta*.—The roads of the Delta are the creeks. They connect the many mouths of the Irrawaddy, and by means of them the people of the Delta pass from place to place as easily, and more cheaply, than the people of other parts of Burma get from village to village by cart. The 'river ports' of the Delta are situated on the larger streams and creeks, very often at places where two streams meet. The paddy of the Delta is brought to them to be sent to Rangoon in 'paddy gigs' or by river steamer, and they are also the market towns of the district. The chief are Bassein, Myaungmya, Maubin, Twante and Pyapon. They are also important centres for the Delta fishing industry also.

On the map of the communications of Burma you will find marked the principal rivers which can be used by steamers. They are marked 'S.' The sign  S indicates the 'head of navigation' above which steamers cannot go. Then acting as 'feeders' to these main streams there are the smaller rivers which can be used by country boats. They are marked 'C.' There are, of course, many other streams, but they are either too swift and rocky or too shallow for navigation. Notice on the map that some of the rivers are interrupted by rapids marked R. At these points goods must be unloaded from the boats and carried overland to below the rapids.

There is another very important use to which the rivers of Burma are put, and that is for floating down the logs of timber from the forests. Very many of the smaller streams are used for this purpose during the rainy season, and there are three big rivers which are very valuable for this reason. They are the Sittang River, the Hlaing River, and the Salween. The Sittang River is dangerous to ships, because a great 'bore' or wave from the sea rushes up it, but the bore does not hurt the logs of timber. The logs are taken

through the Pegu-Sittang Canal, and so reach the saw mills at Rangoon. The Hlaing River flows down the western side of the Pegu Yomas and passes into the Rangoon River itself. The timber floated down the Salween is exported from Moulmein.

2. **Canals.**—With two exceptions, the canals of Burma are not used as means of communication. They are for irrigation purposes only. The exceptions are: (a) the Twante Canal, twenty miles long, joining the Rangoon River with the Irrawaddy, and (b) the Pegu-Sittang Canal, which joins the Pegu River with the River Sittang. The chief irrigation canals are the Mandalay Canal, the Shwebo Canal, the Yeu Canal, and three canals in the Minbu District, the Mon, Maw, and Salin Canals. The water which is required to fill the irrigation canals is obtained from the upper courses of swift rivers where they come down from the hills. If it were not for the canals most of this water, instead of forming a big river, would sink into the dry sandy soil of the Dry Belt.

In other countries swift streams and rivers are, as we say, 'harnessed,' they are made to work machinery which produces electricity for factories. Perhaps one day some of the streams of Burma may be used in this way.

3. **Roads.**—There are very few metalled roads in Burma outside the towns. Two lead out from Rangoon, to Prome and to Pegu, and there are three or four more leading to hill-stations from the plains—from Mandalay to Maymyo, from Thazi to Taunggyi, from Thabeik-kyin to Mogok, and from Toungoo to Thandaung. Far more metalled roads are required in Burma, and as the country is further developed, more will doubtless be built. One reason why there are so few is that the heavy rainfall of Burma is very destructive to metalled roads; it washes out the sand and grit which binds the 'road metal,' and then the stones work loose and are carried away so that the surface becomes broken and rough. Moreover, a metalled road costs a lot of money to build and is a great expense to maintain if there is much cart or motor traffic along it. An ordinary metalled road costs between Rs. 20,000 and Rs. 30,000 per mile to build, and about Rs. 2,000 a mile per year to keep in order. This high cost is another reason why Burma has not more metalled roads.

There are a good number of 'unmetalled' roads, but as their surface is not hard, it quickly becomes full of ruts, and the roads cannot be used by any transport other than bullock carts; even they find it impossible to get along in the rainy season in many cases. The 'roads' in the hills are mere tracks, wide enough only for pack mules, and these again use them chiefly in the dry season.

4. *Railways.*—Fig. 157 shows that the river communications and the railways of Burma often follow the same lines. Railways nearly always follow river valleys, because it is cheaper to build a railway along more or less flat country than it is to carry it over ranges of hills where tunnels and bridges will be necessary.

The main line from Rangoon to Mandalay is 386 miles long, and follows the Sittang and Kyaukse River valleys. The line from Sagaing to Wuntho and Katha follows the Mu Valley and continues on to Myitkyina, over 700 miles from Rangoon. Another short branch from Sagaing follows the Chindwin Valley to Monywa and Alon. The line from Mandalay to Maymyo and Lashio follows the Myitnge Valley.

At Thazi, two branches leave the main line, one going west to Meiktila and Myingyan, and one going to the Shan Plateau through Kalaw to Heho. It will be continued towards Taunggyi in time to come.

The line from Rangoon to Prome is 160 miles long, and at Letpadan there is a branch to Tharrawaw, where a steam ferry takes passengers and goods across the Irrawaddy to Henzada, from which place there are two branches to Bassein and to Myanaung respectively.

Notice that the railways of Burma are broken in three places, where ferries have to be used—Mandalay to Sagaing, Katha to Bhamo, and Tharrawaw to Henzada. The railways of Burma are 'metre gauge.' The mail leaves Rangoon at noon and arrives in Mandalay at six the next morning. That is, it takes eighteen hours to do 386 miles. In England a fast express, leaving London at 10 p.m., can reach Edinburgh, 375 miles away, in $7\frac{1}{2}$ hours.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Why are more roads needed in Burma? Where do you think they ought to be made?

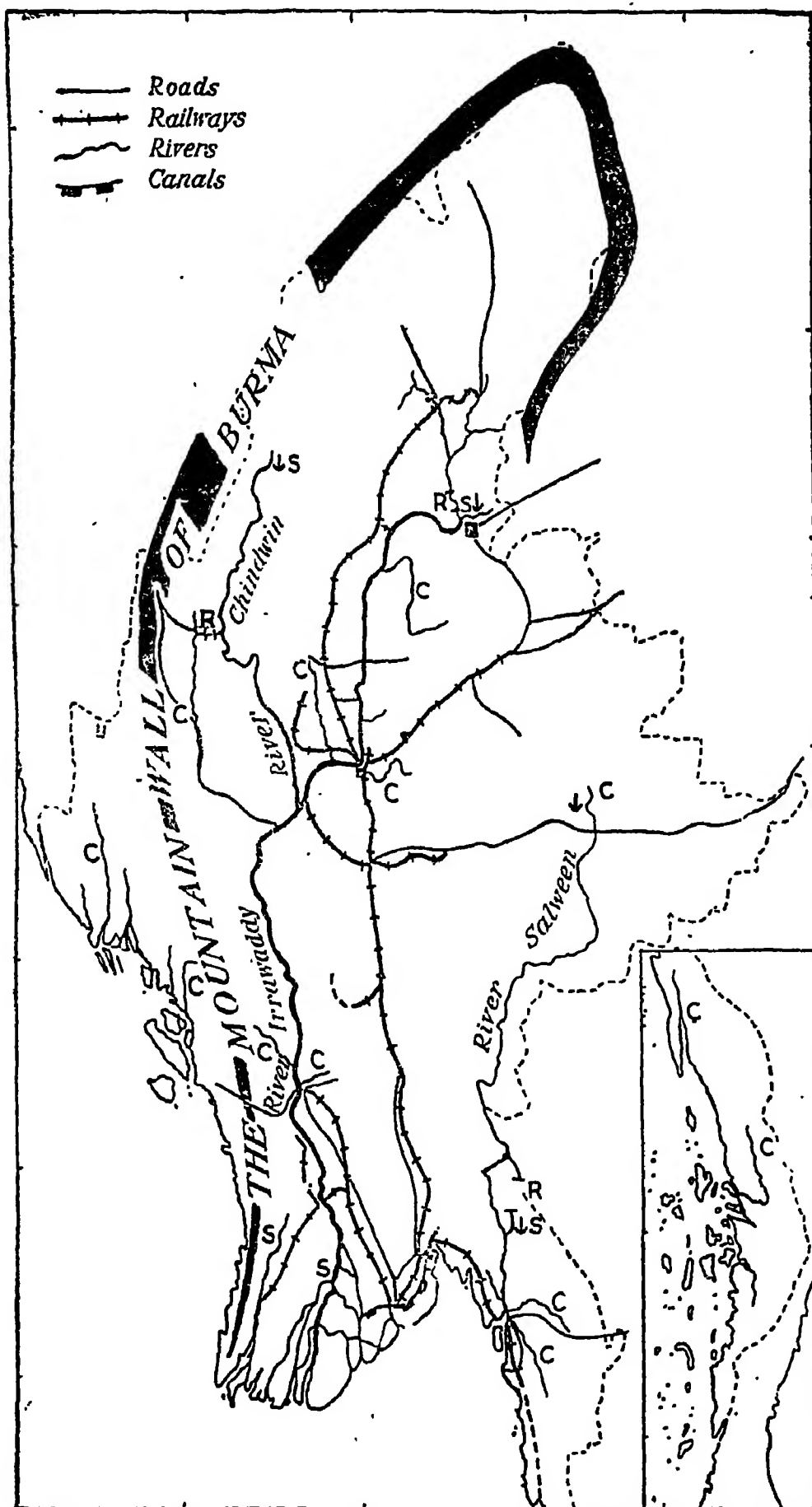


FIG. 157.—Communications of Burma.

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2. How would a man travel from Bhamo to Calcutta? Why would he travel the way you suggest?

3. If on an average you can travel 400 miles a day by train, 200 miles a day by motor car, fifty by steamer, and fifteen by bullock cart how long would it take you to reach the following places from Rangoon, and how would you go: Pakokku, Homalin, Bhamo, Yenangyaung, Myitkyina, Taunggyi and Mogok?

4. Why should people living in the Dry Belt want to exchange goods with those living in the Deltas? Explain by sketch-maps how the exchange takes place.

5. Is there any reason for the direction followed by the railways from Rangoon?

6. The trade along the river between Bhamo and Mandalay is much more important than that between Kindat and Sagaing. Give reasons for this.

7. Draw a diagram to explain the advantages of the position of Henzada.

CHAPTER XLIII

TRADE AND RELATIONS WITH THE EMPIRE

1. No civilized country produces everything which it requires. The cities of India would seem very strange now without any motor cars, or if we could not buy such things as machinery, glass, fine cotton goods and silks or boots and shoes. These things cannot all be made here, they have to be obtained from other countries. Now nearly all countries can produce more of certain things than they require. Such surplus products can be sent to other countries in exchange. Products which one country sells or sends in exchange to another are called 'exports': goods which the country buys or receives in exchange are the 'imports'.

It is very much better if the exchange of goods is between different countries of the Empire, for those countries stood together in the Great War, and they stand together in peace, and it is by the exchange of goods that they can help one another. India's trade, as we shall see shortly, is mainly with other countries of the Empire.

2. Ports.—The tables published by Government tell us the share each province has in the foreign trade of India. Try to remember these important places.

Bengal has one important port	Calcutta.	
Bombay	„	„	...	Bombay.
Sind	„	„	...	Karachi.
Burma	„	„	...	Rangoon.
Madras has Madras and several other smaller ports.				
Ceylon has one important port	Colombo.	

Fig. 158 will help you to remember which are the most important ports in India.

Bombay is just a tiny bit more important than Calcutta, chiefly because all the gold and silver of which we use an enormous amount in India, comes to Bombay. Next in size is Karachi, then Rangoon and then Madras.

All the other ports in India are a long way behind. The trade of Colombo is about the same as that of Rangoon or Karachi.

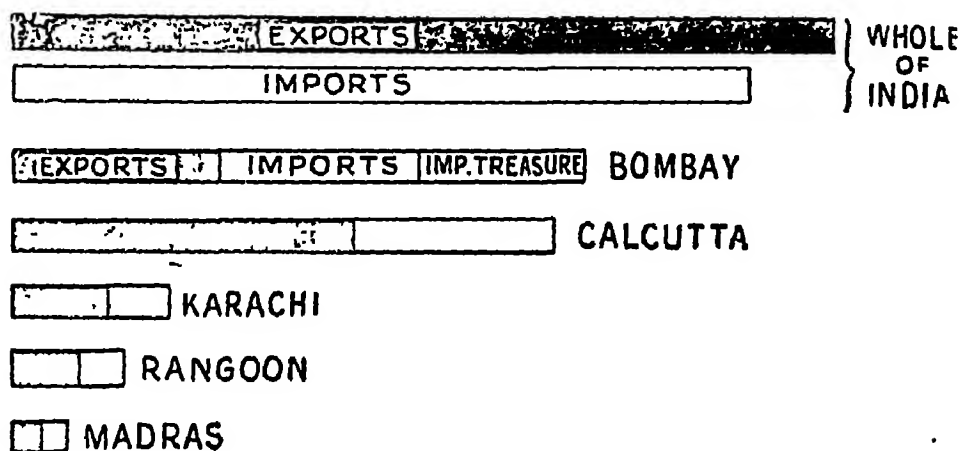


FIG. 158.—Trade of the principal ports of India (1924).

3. **Bombay.**—In Chapters XXVI and XXX of this book we learnt something of the rich hinterland of Bombay. Fig. 159 shows roughly the extent of the hinterland. Now let us see what things are produced in this rich hinterland and sent away to other countries. Fig. 160 is a diagram showing their relative values.

Cotton (raw). The raw cotton sent away from India every year to other countries is worth more than sixty crores of rupees. Nearly three quarters of it is sent from the port of Bombay. Remember what you have learnt of the rich cotton growing land of the Deccan Lavas Region and how the cotton is sent by railway through the two 'gaps' in the Western Ghats to Bombay.

Cotton Manufactures. You remember that there are many cotton mills in Bombay and cotton is manufactured. But the value of the cotton goods sent away is only about one-fifth of that of the raw cotton.

Cotton Seeds. These also form a valuable export. They are used for making oil in other countries.

Linseed forms the most important export next to cotton and cotton manufactures but the value is only about one-thirteenth part of that of the raw cotton.

Sesamum and Groundnuts also used for making oil are both important.

Raw Wool from the sheep which feed on the dry pastures is another export, also hides (as the skins of buffaloes and



FIG. 159.—The Hinterland of Bombay.

oxen are called), skins (of goats and sheep), leather (manufactured from hide and skins). A little rice and wheat is also exported, the latter from the Narbada Valley.

RAW COTTON	COTTON GOODS	COTTON SEED	OTHERS
		LIN SEED	
		GROUNDNUTS & SES.	
		WOOL	
		HIDES, SKIN, LEATHER	

FIG. 160.—The Exports of Bombay.

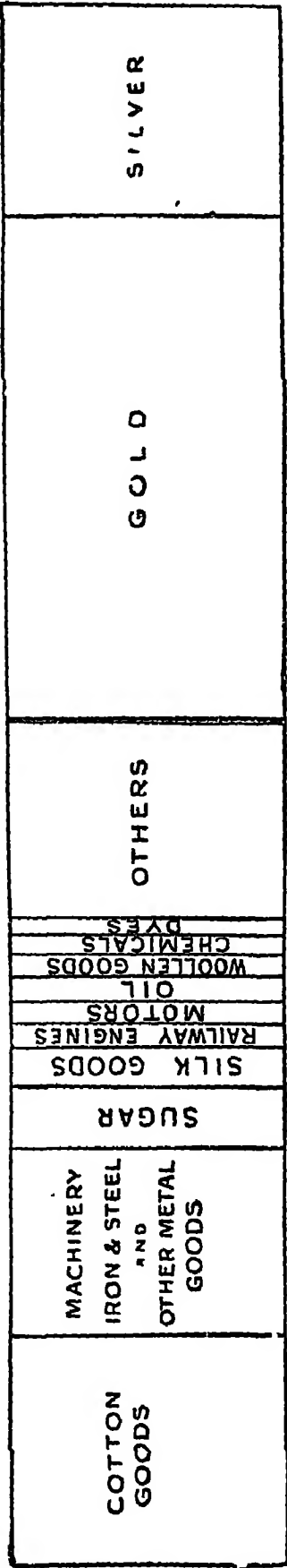


Fig. 161.—The Imports of Bombay.

Now where are these exports of Bombay sent to? A very large amount of the raw cotton goes to Japan. Japan is a country which can manufacture cotton goods very cheaply but cannot grow much cotton of her own because Japan is too cold. A large quantity goes to China. Most of the remainder goes to the busy, industrial countries of Europe—Italy, Great Britain, France, Belgium and Germany.

The manufactured cotton goods are not sent nearly so far away. The people in all the countries near India need clothes and so buy them from the mills at Bombay. These countries are Mesopotamia, Straits Settlements, Ceylon, Persia and the British Colonies in Africa.

The cotton seeds and linseed go to Great Britain.

The people of France and Italy use a lot of oil in cooking their food and so they buy the sesamum and groundnuts.

Germany buys buffalo and cow hides, but the United States of America buy the goat and sheep skins.

Since India is mainly an agricultural country and manufactures are only carried on at a few big cities like Bombay and Calcutta, we find that the agricultural products, like the raw cotton sent away by Bombay and the jute sent by Calcutta are exchanged for manufactured goods which have been made in the busy countries of Europe and America. Fig. 161

shows the imports of Bombay. Except for sugar, all the important ones are manufactured.

Cotton Goods. Cotton goods come mainly from Great Britain, where the famous cotton mills of Lancashire can make some of the best cotton goods in the world. Another country which sends cotton goods is Japan. Japanese cotton goods are cheaper but they are not very good. Italy, Holland and other countries in Europe send a little.

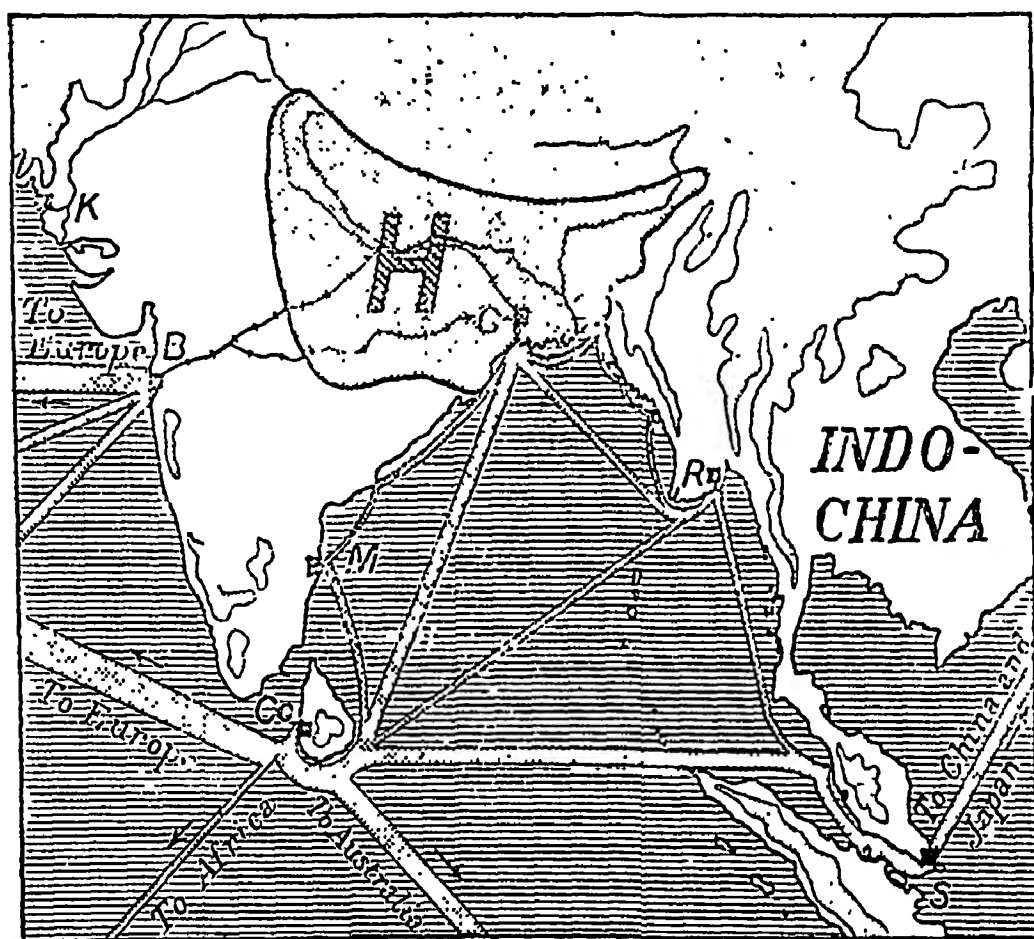


FIG. 162.—Trade and steamship routes to Calcutta. C = Calcutta ; B = Bombay ; K = Karachi ; Co = Colombo ; M = Madras ; R = Rangoon ; S = Singapore ; H = the Hinterland of Calcutta. Land over 3,000 feet dotted.

Machinery. All kinds of machinery, iron and steel goods, hardware, etc., are sent to India. The greater part comes from Great Britain but the United States send a lot and so do Germany and Belgium.

Sugar comes from Java.

Silk goods from Japan and Italy.

Railway Engines from Great Britian, *Motors* from the United States and Canada.

Oil from the United States, *Woollen goods* from Great Britain, *Dyes* and *Chemicals* from Germany.

The people in India are very fond of gold and silver ornaments. Look at the enormous value of this treasure—the gold and silver brought into Bombay are worth nearly as much as all the other imports put together. The gold comes from Natal (it is found in the goldfields of South Africa) and Great Britain. It is not found in Great Britain but it is taken there from other countries first. Australia sends some and so do the United States. The silver comes from the United States, Great Britain, Australia and China.

4. **Calcutta.**—The whole of the great Ganges Valley and indeed nearly all of north-eastern India forms the 'hinterland' of the great port of Calcutta. (See Fig. 162). There is only one other port in the north-east—Chittagong—and so we can judge the exports of this part of India by the goods which pass through the port of Calcutta. Fig. 163 shows their relative values.

J U T E		MAN ^D	T E A	L A C	O I L S E E D S	C O T T O N G O O D S	O T H E R S
R A W							

FIG. 163.—The Exports of Calcutta

Jute and Jute Manufactures. By far the most important export from the port of Calcutta is jute. It is more valuable than all the other exports added together and in some years is more than twice all the others. Even if we take the whole of India we find jute forms one quarter of the whole exports. Jute is the cheapest fibre in the world for making bags. It is exported as bags, or as canvas.

'raw' that is ready to be manufactured abroad. The Deltas Region of North-eastern India is the only important jute-producing region in the world and the jute is sent to all countries of the world. Huge quantities go to North America, United States and Canada, England, Germany, Argentine, Australia, Java, China and Japan.

Jute is a crop which is largely grown for export and more than two-thirds of the total produced is sent out of the country.

Tea.—Tea is generally the second most important export sent from Calcutta but is a long, long way behind jute. As you have learnt tea comes mainly from the Brahmaputra valley and part of the Sub-Himalayan Region in Northern Bengal. It is roughly one-tenth of the total trade of Calcutta. More than three-quarters of the tea is sent to the United Kingdom. Other countries which buy tea are Canada, the United States and Australia.

Lac.—Lac is also a valuable export. It comes from the forests of the hilly regions and is sent mainly to the United States (which buys two-thirds of the supply), the United Kingdom, Germany and France.

Oil Seeds.—Oil seeds, including ground-nuts, sesamum, rape or mustard and linseed, are sent mainly to France, United Kingdom and Belgium. Oil seeds are largely grown for export and about one-fourth of the total crop is exported.

Hides and Skins.—The United States is the most important customer, taking most of the skins; followed by the United Kingdom and Germany.

Grain.—We have seen what an enormous quantity of rice is grown in the Deltas Region, Middle Ganges Valley. Yet the population is so dense that nearly all the rice is eaten by the people themselves. The same is true of other grains, so that the amount left for export is very small. Indeed in many years Calcutta has to import large quantities of rice from Burma.

Cotton, Raw and Manufactured.—Considerable quantities of cotton goods of Indian manufacture are exported but most of the cotton sent out of India passes through Bombay.

Other exports include coal, indigo, opium, metals and oils.

Fig. 164 illustrates the relative value of the imports of Calcutta. The following are the most important :—

COTTON GOODS	IRON AND STEEL	MACHINERY	RAILWAY STOCK	SUGAR	OIL	OTHER GOODS
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FIG. 164.—Imports of Calcutta.

Cotton Goods for Clothing, etc.—As in Bombay these are by far the most important and constitute more than one-third of the whole in value. About ninety per cent come from England. During the Great War when it was difficult to obtain goods from Europe many cotton goods were bought from Japan. But Japanese cotton goods are not such fine quality and are not liked so well as the better British goods.

Metal and Metal Manufactures.—*Machinery together with Iron and Steel and Railway Engines and Railway materials.*—Iron and Steel goods, including machinery, are easily second in importance and make up roughly one-quarter of the total in value. The United Kingdom supplies the greater part, with some from the United States and Germany.

Sugar.—Sugar is another important import and comes largely from Java.

Mineral Oil.—The greater part of the mineral oil imported through Calcutta comes from another part of India, viz. from Burma, but the United States also supply large quantities.

Other imports include silk, paper, salt, liquors and motor cars, also timber and rice from Burma.

The trade of Chittagong is only two per cent of that of Calcutta.

5. *Karachi.*—Fig. 165 shows the extent of the Hinterland of Karachi. Only about 5 or 10 per cent of the exports of the Punjab, North-West Frontier Province and Kashmir go to the port of Bombay and still less to Calcutta. The

exports of Karachi represent the surplus products of North-western India. Fig. 166 shows their relative values.

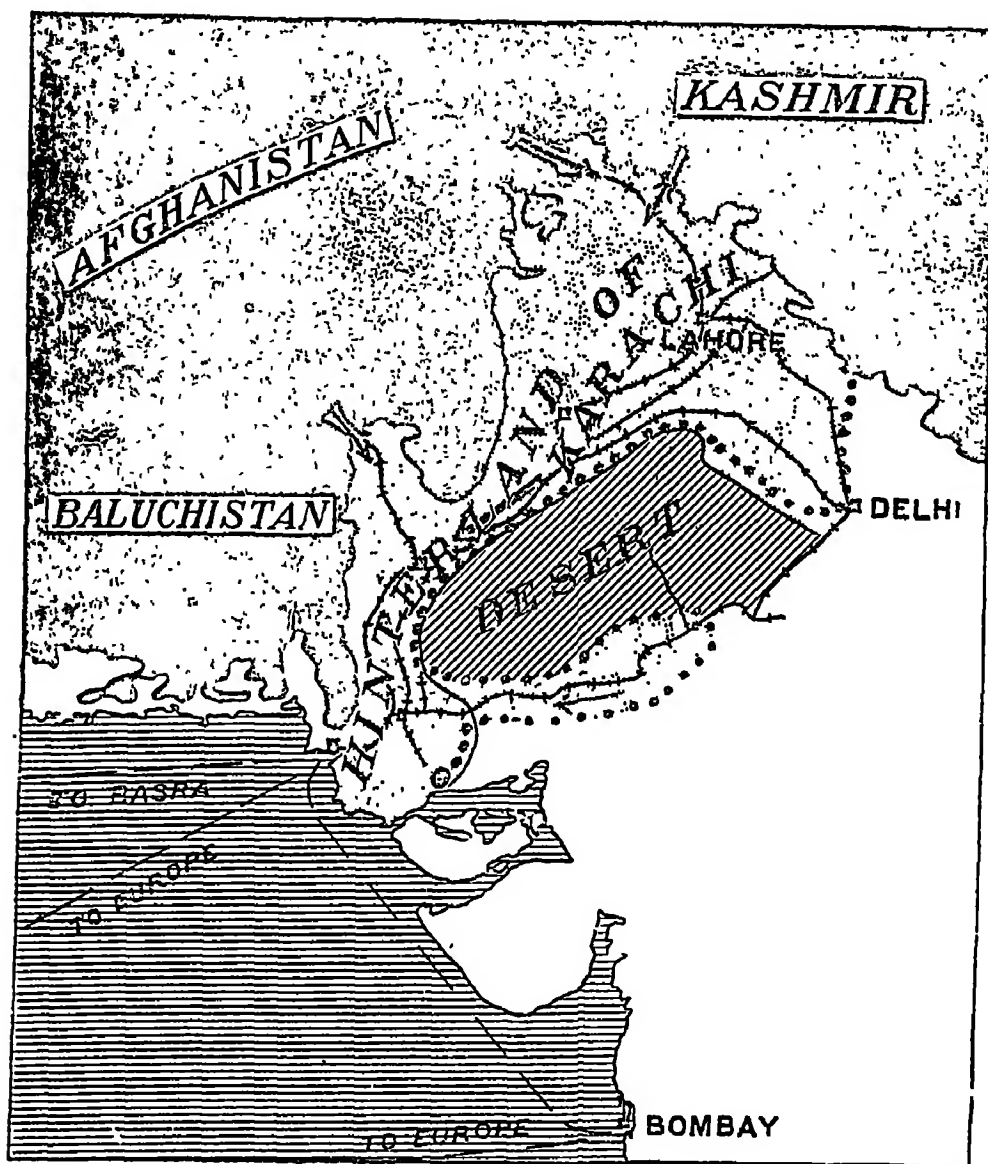


FIG. 165. — The Hinterland of Karachi.

Raw Cotton.—As with Bombay, raw cotton is the most important export of Karachi and goes mainly to Great Britain.

RAW COTTON	WHEAT	BARLEY	OILSEEDS (RAPE)	WOOL	GRAM	LEATHER	OTHERS
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FIG. 166. — The Exports of Karachi.

Wheat and Wheat Flour.—Most of the white races of Europe eat bread made from wheat flour. Most of the surplus produced in the Punjab goes to Great Britain.

Barley is used in the same countries as wheat.

Oilseeds again go to France and Belgium.

Raw Wool, Gram, Skins, Hides and Rice are the other exports of Karachi.

The imports of Karachi are very like those of Bombay or Calcutta. They are shown in Fig. 167.

COTTON GOODS	SUGAR	MACHINERY IRON & STEEL	IRON TOOLS	WOOD GOODS	OTHERS
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FIG. 167.—The Imports of Karachi.

Cotton goods.

Sugar comes mainly from Java but Karachi also imports considerable quantities of best sugar from Germany and Hungary and cane sugar from Mauritius.

Metals and Machinery.

Mineral oil is brought from Persia.

6. Madras.—This port is often called Fort St. George, from the old name of Madras. Remember that the trade of Madras is very much less than Bombay as shown by Fig. 168 drawn on the same scale as Fig. 159. The most important exports are leather, skins and hides which are sent to the United States and Great Britain.

LEATHER	SKINS	RAW COTTON	COTTON GOODS	GROUND NUTS	OTHERS
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FIG 168.—The Exports of Madras.

Cotton (raw) is sent to Great Britain and Japan.

Cotton goods to Ceylon and countries near India.

Groundnuts are sent to France where the people use much groundnut oil.

Notice from what parts of the hinterland of Madras these products come.

The imports of Madras are just like those of Calcutta or Bombay and come mainly from the same countries.

The trade of the smaller ports of Peninsular India is not a large one and is mainly an export trade. It is shown in Fig. 169.

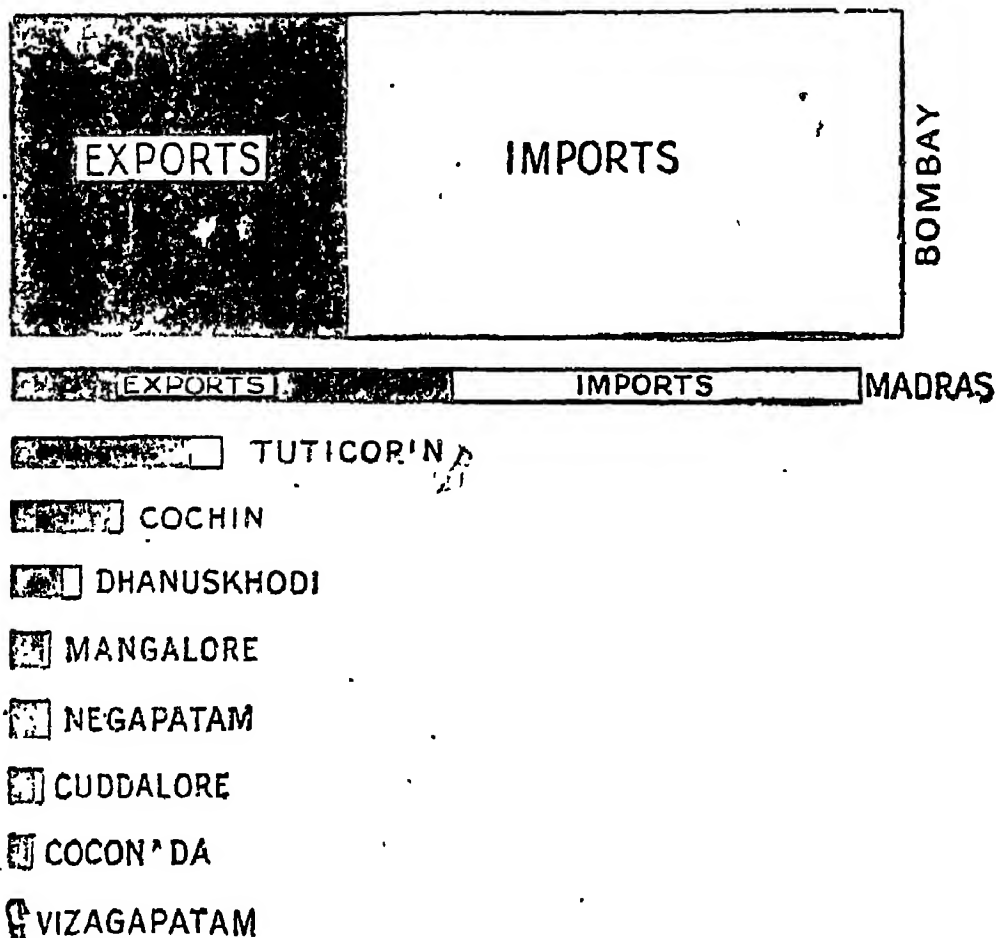


FIG. 169.—The Trade of the smaller ports of Peninsular India in 1924.

7. Rangoon.—Burma is surrounded by a mountain wall, and all the area inside the wall forms the hinterland of Rangoon. The other ports of Burma are Akyab (the port of

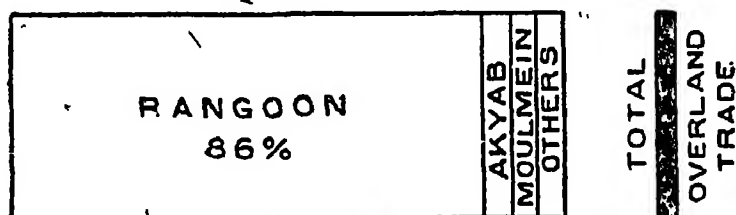


FIG. 170.—Trade of the sea ports of Burma (1922-3), with total overland trade for comparison.

the Arakan Coastal Strip) and Moulmein (the principal port of Tenasserim). Fig. 170 shows their relative importance.

The following are the exports of Burma (see Fig. 171) :—

Rice.—By far the most important is *rice*. The quantity is fairly constant, $2\frac{1}{2}$ million tons every year. Those countries

R I C E	PETROLEUM & WAX	TEAK	COTTON	OTHERS
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FIG. 171.—The Exports of Rangoon.

which have had a bad harvest of their own are usually the biggest buyers—sometimes it is India, sometimes Japan or China.

The chief customers in the Empire are India, Ceylon, Straits Settlements, Egypt, Hong Kong and the United Kingdom. Of the foreign countries Germany is the chief, followed by China.

Petroleum and its Products.—There has been on the whole, a steady increase until 1922, when 578,000 tons were exported together with 31,000 tons of paraffin wax and candles. Nearly all the oil goes to India, which has very little of its own, but the candles go to Europe and Egypt.

Teakwood.—In 1922, 148,000 tons were exported, and this is about an average for some years past ; 83 per cent went to India ; 6 per cent to foreign countries, the rest to other parts of the British Empire.

Other Products.—Cotton is the only other product worth more than 100 lakhs in a year. Other exports are *hides and skins, beans, rubber, lac, metals and ores and jadestone*.

About one-third of the exports of Burma go to India.

The imports of Burma are very similar to those of India, except that there is a large trade with India proper (Fig. 172).

COTTON GOODS	MACHINERY, ETC. IRON & STEEL	SUGAR	OIL	SILK	OTHERS
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FIG. 172.—The Imports of Rangoon.

Cotton Goods for Clothing, etc.—These are by far the most important. Thirty-nine per cent came from India, about 42 per cent from the United Kingdom, leaving only 19 per cent from other countries, of which Japan and the Netherlands are the chief.

Machinery.—The United Kingdom supplied 72 per cent, the other contributors being Germany and the United States.

Coal.—In 1922 Burma imported 332,000 tons of Bengal coal and 86,000 tons from other countries. Of the latter 6,000 tons came from Japan, the remainder from the United Kingdom (41,000), East Africa and Australia.

Other Imports.—Silk, sugar, tobacco and liquors.

Nearly half the imports of Burma come from India.

8. *Direction of Trade.*—Let us go back to the trade of the whole of India and see what countries are her best friends—those who buy goods from her and send her others in exchange. Find all these countries on the maps in your atlas.

Fig. 173 shows you by means of a little diagram India's best customers. By far the biggest is Great Britain. Notice how much India is helped by the other countries of the Empire who buy her goods. Study Fig. 173 carefully.

Fig. 174 shows you the countries which send India goods. Notice again what a lot of trade is with the countries of the Empire. Study this figure carefully too.

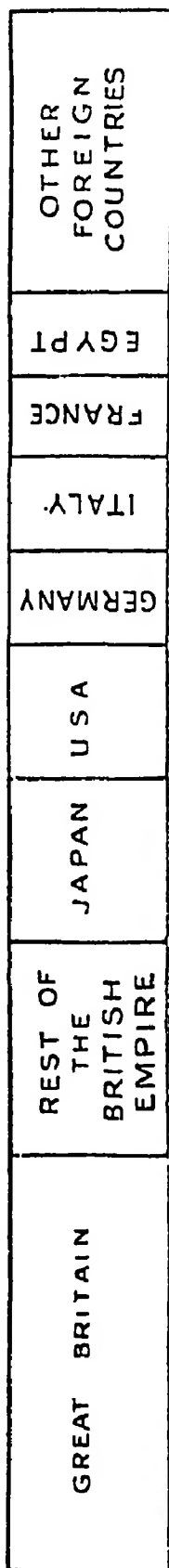


FIG. 173.—The trade of India by countries (exports).

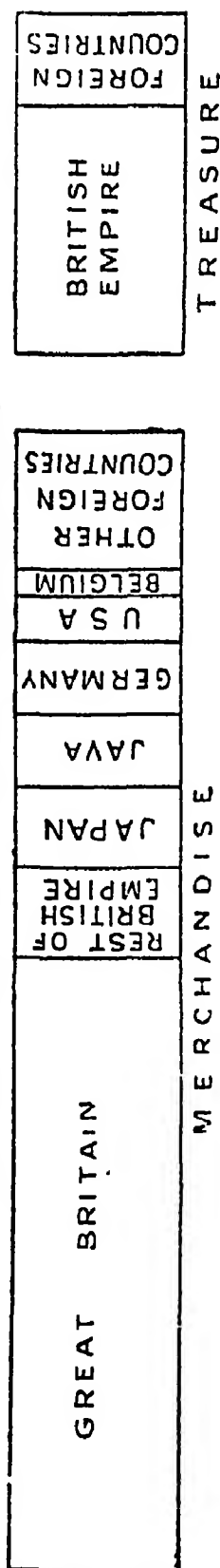


FIG. 174.—The trade of India by countries (imports).

9. **Shipping.**—The ships which bring the goods to India and take others away belong to different nations. More than three-quarters of the steamers are British or Indian and nearly three quarters of the goods brought to or taken away from India were in these steamers. The most numerous foreign ships are Japanese, Italian, American and German.

A great deal of money has to be paid to the owners of the steamers who carry the goods. If the steamers belong to foreign countries that money is paid away and does not benefit India or any other country of the Empire. If the steamers belong to one of the countries of the Empire that money stays in the Empire and helps to build up trade.

10. **Overland Trade.**—Both India and Burma are surrounded by mountain walls and the amount of trade crossing these mountains—the foreign overland trade of India—is very small.

Overland Trade of India.—Is mainly with Persia (through Baluchistan), Afghanistan (through the Khyber Pass) and Nepal (from the Ganges Valley).

Overland Trade of Burma.—Fig. 170 shows the small value of the overland trade when compared with the sea-borne trade. It is mainly with China (through Bhamo and Kunlong Ferry) and Siam (*via* Tavoy).

Overland Trade between India and Burma.—A small trade passes through the Taungup and An Passes and through Manipur.

In connexion with the overland trade of India and Burma study Figs. 7 and 8 carefully.

11. **The Trade of Ceylon.**—The total value of the trade of Ceylon is very roughly one-tenth of that of India and Burma. By far the most important port is Colombo, with a fine artificial harbour. Its trade is roughly equal to that of Rangoon or Karachi, but is a busier harbour because it is the port of call for liners to the far East and to Australia. In addition to the real trade of Colombo, there is a large amount of transshipment trade—goods are taken from one vessel, stored for a short while before being *transhipped* to another vessel going to the right destination. It is like a 'ocean junction' where passengers (and goods) travelling by one line change on to another. The other ports of Ceylon are

Galle, Talaimannar (for India) Trincomalee and Jaffna. Fig. 175 shows the exports of Ceylon.

TEA	RUBBER	COCONUT PRODUCTS	OTHERS
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FIG. 175.—The Exports of Ceylon.

Tea, of which a large part goes to Great Britain, forms nearly half of the whole export trade.

Rubber goes mainly to Great Britain and the United States.

Coconuts, *coconut oil* and *copra* go very largely to the United Kingdom.

Other exports, (much less important) are arecanuts, cocoa, cinnamon, citronella oil and plumbago.

Fig. 176 shows the imports of Ceylon.

RICE	COTTON GOODS	COAL	SUGAR	OTHERS
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FIG. 176.—The Imports of Ceylon.

Rice is very important. The mountainous island of Ceylon cannot grow enough to feed the population.

Cotton goods are next in importance.

Coal and Coke of which Ceylon has none at all, come next.

Sugar come from Java.

12. *India's Position and World Trade*.—Look at your atlas and see how well situated India is for trade. Notice the main trade routes to other countries. Take the exports and imports of India and try to see which way they will come or go. At present there are no easy ways out of India except by steamers. One day we may have railways direct to certain other countries like China. One day too we may have letters and goods carried by aeroplanes. At present a letter takes fourteen days from Bombay to London. Aeroplanes would carry letters much more quickly. At the present time a great deal of the commercial business of India is carried on by means of cablegram and telegram. A message can be sent from Bombay or Madras to any part of the Empire and a reply received in a short time in this way; a merchant can get a reply from London in a day.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. From which Natural Region of Peninsular India do you think most of the (i) wool, (ii) cotton, (iii) lac, (iv) leather comes from? Why?

2. If you were a merchant in (i) West Coast, (ii) Upper Ganges Valley, (iii) Carnatic, (iv) Rajput uplands what commodities would you try to deal in? Why? (Remember a merchant both buys and sells.)

3. Can you foresee any change which may take place in the future in the trade of (i) Chota Nagpur, (ii) Deccan Lavas Region, (iii) West Coast Region, (iv) Lower Indus Valley, (v) Baluchistan? Explain.

Burma

4. If Australia (countries of the Empire) broke
United Kingdom, etc.

away from the Empire and declared war on the rest, how would the people of India be affected?

APPENDIX

USEFUL TABLES

THESE tables are added with the object of providing the teacher with material for further practical exercises. On no account are they to be memorized merely as facts. The teacher should use his ingenuity to invent exercises and problems upon them, for his pupils to work individually. The ability to work problems of this type is the surest proof that students have really grasped the subject intelligently.

Throughout this book, treatment has been by Natural Regions. In many of the tables which follow the figures are given for the different Provinces, so that the pupils may work exercises taking the Province in which they live as a whole.

Exercises should be of the following type :—

1. Fill up the blanks in the tables.
2. Represent areas, populations, products, and trade graphically on squared paper, and make comparisons between Provinces or Regions.
3. Draw diagrams for temperature and rainfall like those shown in the book. Explain all differences and make comparisons.
4. Make up and work arithmetical problems on the tables.
5. Take each table separately, turn it into a diagram. then write a composition on all that it teaches.
6. Draw little sketch maps illustrating facts shown in the tables, especially Table VI.

TABLE I

SIZES AND AREAS

The Earth : Area 197,000,000 sq. miles. Land 57,500,000 sq. miles.
Water 139,500,000 sq. miles.

—	Area (sq. miles)	Coastline (miles)
Europe	3,760,000	23,100
Asia	17,040,000	43,900
Africa	11,280,000	19,000
North America	7,950,000	46,600
South America	6,850,000	17,800
Australia	2,980,000	12,100

—	Area (sq. miles)	Population	Density
GREAT BRITAIN—	121,633	45,875,000	
England	50,874	34,500,000	
Wales	7,466	2,125,000	
Scotland	29,797	4,860,000	
Ireland	32,586	4,390,000	
INDIA	1,805,332	318,942,480	
<i>Provinces</i>	1,094,300	247,003,293	
Ajmer-Merwara	2,711	495,271	
Andamans	3,143	27,086	
Assam	53,015	7,606,230	
Baluchistan	54,228	420,648	
Bengal	76,843	46,695,536	
Bihar and Orissa	83,161	34,002,189	
Bombay Presidency	123,621	19,348,219	
Burma	233,707	13,212,192	
Central Provinces	99,876	13,912,760	
Coorg	1,582	163,838	
Delhi	593	488,188	
Madras	142,260	42,318,985	
N.W.F.P.	13,419	2,251,340	
Punjab	99,846	20,685,024	
United Provinces	102,295	45,375,787	

TABLE I—(Continued)
SIZES AND AREAS—(Continued)

	Area (sq. miles)	Population	Density
<i>States</i> ...	711,032	71,939,187	
Baluchistan States ..	80,410	378,977	
Baroda ...	8,127	2,126,522	
Bengal States ...	5,434	896,926	
B. and O. States ...	28,648	3,959,669	
Bombay States ...	63,453	7,409,429	
Central India ...	51,531	5,997,023	
C. P. States ...	31,176	2,066,900	
Gwalior ...	26,357	3,186,075	
Hyderabad ...	82,698	12,471,770	
Kashmir ...	84,258	3,320,518	
Madras States ...	10,696	5,460,312	
Mysore ...	29,475	5,978,892	
N.W.F.P. States ...	25,500	2,825,136	
Punjab States ..	37,059	4,416,036	
Rajputana ...	128,987	9,844,384	
Sikkim ...	2,818	81,721	
U. P. States ...	5,949	1,134,881	
Manipur ...	8,456	384,016	
Ceylon ...	25,300	4,424,000	
Afghanistan ...	250,000	6,000,000	
China ...	4,277,000	319,000,000	
Japan ...	260,700	56,000,000	
Siam ...	195,000	8,260,000	

TABLE II

CLOUD

The sky is divided into ten divisions, and the number of divisions covered by cloud is shown in this table

Place	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual
Bombay ...	1.3	1.3	1.8	3.1	4.0	7.6	8.9	8.9	7.3	3.6	1.7	1.7	4.3
Nagpur ...	1.8	2.1	1.8	2.3	2.3	6.1	8.2	8.2	6.1	2.8	1.7	2.1	3.8
Hyderabad ...	2.1	1.8	1.4	2.2	3.3	6.6	7.8	7.4	6.3	3.9	2.6	2.0	3.9
Madras ...	3.3	2.8	2.4	4.3	4.0	6.0	7.1	6.8	6.3	5.3	5.4	4.9	4.9
Neemuch ...	1.7	1.8	1.7	1.4	0.9	4.0	7.1	7.2	4.0	1.3	0.9	1.5	2.8
Mercara ...	4.1	3.5	3.2	4.5	6.3	8.8	9.6	9.4	8.5	6.6	5.5	5.0	6.3
Karachi ...	2.5	2.3	2.3	2.4	3.2	5.4	7.2	7.5	4.8	1.6	1.2	1.9	3.5
Lahore ...	3.7	3.6	3.6	2.6	1.6	2.4	3.8	3.8	1.6	0.5	1.2	2.6	2.6
Quetta ...	3.8	3.7	3.3	2.4	1.0	0.6	1.1	1.1	0.3	0.3	1.7	3.1	1.9

TABLE III

TEMPERATURES (not reduced to sea-level) and RAINFALL

Station	Month	Max.	Min.	Average	Rain inches	Station	Month	Max.	Min.	Average	Rain inches
Darwar (West Coast Region.)	Jan.	86.4	65.8		0.06	Bellary (Deccan Region.)	Jan.	88.2	61.6		0.08
	Feb.	86.0	67.0		0.01		Feb.	94.2	65.9		0.07
	Mar.	87.5	72.4		...		Mar.	100.5	72.2		0.21
	Apr.	89.5	77.5		0.51		Apr.	103.6	77.2		0.60
	May	89.7	79.7		3.08		May	102.5	77.6		1.91
	June	85.2	76.2		37.30		June	94.8	75.8		2.16
	July	82.9	75.2		39.12		July	91.0	75.0		1.62
	Aug.	82.4	74.7		20.59		Aug.	91.8	73.8		2.17
	Sep.	82.6	74.0		10.58		Sep.	90.6	72.9		4.61
	Oct.	85.4	73.6		5.43		Oct.	90.3	71.2		4.08
	Nov.	87.6	69.5		1.47		Nov.	87.4	65.0		1.73
	Dec.	87.6	66.4		0.21		Dec.	85.9	61.3		0.09
Negapatam (Carnatic Region.)	Jan.	82.4	71.4		1.54	Poona (Deccan Lavas Region.)	Jan.	86.2	54.2		0.09
	Feb.	84.8	72.7		0.91		Feb.	90.9	56.2		0.03
	Mar.	88.8	75.9		0.34		Mar.	97.5	63.2		0.94
	Apr.	92.7	79.3		0.80		Apr.	101.4	69.2		0.66
	May	97.6	80.2		1.99		May	99.7	71.8		1.28
	June	97.6	79.4		1.46		June	89.8	72.6		5.67
	July	95.9	78.4		1.85		July	82.5	70.9		7.67
	Aug.	93.9	77.3		3.54		Aug.	81.7	69.6		3.77
	Sep.	92.7	76.7		3.75		Sep.	84.4	68.6		4.70
	Oct.	88.7	76.2		10.53		Oct.	89.0	66.4		4.04
	Nov.	84.5	74.3		15.70		Nov.	86.7	58.8		0.99
	Dec.	82.1	72.1		11.21		Dec.	84.6	53.8		0.25
Mercara (Border of West Coast and Deccan Regions-Crest of Western Ghats.)	Jan.	77.8	57.0		0.18	Singapore	Jan.	89.3	73.0		
	Feb.	81.2	58.9		0.16		Feb.	89.8	72.4		
	Mar.	84.6	61.6		0.66		Mar.	91.5	73.3		
	Apr.	84.0	63.9		2.69		Apr.	91.0	74.6		
	May	80.4	64.5		5.58		May	90.7	75.1		
	June	72.8	63.4		26.50		June	90.0	74.8		
	July	69.0	62.2		43.71		July	89.6	74.5		
	Aug.	69.7	62.1		26.01		Aug.	88.9	73.6		
	Sep.	71.8	61.8		10.71		Sep.	88.4	74.0		
	Oct.	76.0	62.1		8.77		Oct.	88.4	74.0		
	Nov.	76.0	60.2		2.82		Nov.	87.5	73.5		
	Dec.	75.5	57.7		0.75		Dec.	87.9	72.6		
Kalat (Baluchistan.)	Jan.	50.7	21.5		1.65	Colombo.	Jan.	87.6	72.2		3.29
	Feb.	53.2	23.6		1.83		Feb.	88.6	73.0		1.83
	Mar.	63.4	32.3		1.29		Mar.	89.7	75.0		4.14
	Apr.	74.2	36.8		0.57		Apr.	89.3	76.2		7.07
	May	83.6	42.6		0.22		May	88.1	78.1		13.13
	June	91.2	47.9		0.22		June	86.1	77.5		7.31
	July	93.2	53.3		0.56		July	85.6	77.1		6.11
	Aug.	91.3	49.2		0.45		Aug.	86.0	77.4		2.78
	Sep.	85.4	38.4		0.03		Sep.	86.3	77.1		5.56
	Oct.	74.5	30.0		0.16		Oct.	86.0	75.3		13.34
	Nov.	67.2	27.1		0.51		Nov.	86.6	74.1		10.77
	Dec.	57.7	24.1		0.85		Dec.	86.9	72.9		4.71

AVERAGE TEMPERATURE OF LONDON

	°F		°F		°F		°F
Jan.	38	Apr.	49	July	64	Oct.	50
Feb.	40	May	55	Aug.	63	Nov.	44
Mar.	43	June	61	Sep.	58	Dec.	40

CULTIVATION (in acres) in 1921-22

Province	Forest	Not available for cultivation	Waste: good land but not used	Cultivated and fallow	Irrigated
Madras	13,000,000	21,500,000	12,200,000	43,000,000	9,500,000
Bombay	8,500,000	5,800,000	1,000,000	35,000,000	1,000,000
Sind	750,000	13,850,000	6,200,000	9,500,000	3,000,000
Bengal	4,250,000	11,500,000	5,800,000	29,000,000	1,750,000
United Provinces: Agra	8,700,000	7,700,000	7,600,000	29,000,000	7,500,000
United Provinces: Oudh	600,000	2,250,000	2,900,000	10,000,000	2,500,000
Punjab	2,200,000	12,500,000	16,100,000	29,000,000	13,500,000
Burma	19,250,000	55,400,000	61,100,000	20,000,000	1,300,000
Bihar and Orissa	7,000,000	8,400,000	6,900,000	31,000,000	5,500,000
Central Provinces	14,500,000	4,000,000	14,800,000	19,000,000	1,100,000
Berar	2,100,000	1,000,000	140,000	8,000,000	30,000
Assam	3,550,000	5,500,000	13,700,000	9,000,000	250,000
N.W.F.P.	350,000	2,650,000	2,500,000	3,000,000	1,000,000
Ajmer-Merwara	100,000	850,000	300,000	500,000	120,000
Coorg	350,000	350,000	11,500	300,000	4,000
Delhi	...	70,000	65,000	232,000	42,000

TABLE V
LIVE STOCK, ETC.

Province	Oxen	Buffaloes	Sheep	Goats	Horses	Mules and Donkeys	Camels	Ploughs	Carts
Assam	5,000,000	600,000	50,000	750,000	20,000	1,000,000	50,000
Bengal	25,000,000	1,000,000	500,000	4,000,000	125,000	2,000	...	4,500,000	700,000
Madras	16,500,000	5,700,000	11,120,000	5,400,000	50,000	132,000	...	4,300,000	1,000,000
Bombay	6,000,000	1,900,000	1,450,000	1,450,000	132,000	71,000	2,200	1,000,000	600,000
Bihar and Orissa.	16,000,000	3,300,000	4,000,000	3,000,000	150,000	30,000	...	3,000,000	500,000
Burma	4,750,000	1,000,000	60,000	280,000	100,000	1,500	...	700,000	700,000
Central Provinces.	7,500,000	1,500,000	200,000	620,000	100,000	17,000	100	1,250,000	700,000
Berar	1,600,000	500,000	96,000	320,000	24,000	16,000	250	150,000	190,000
United Provinces.	22,000,000	7,500,000	2,300,000	4,000,000	150,000	280,000	20,000	3,300,000	700,000
Punjab	16,500,000	4,600,000	4,000,000	3,000,000	400,000	650,000	230,000	2,200,000	300,000
Ceylon	1,000,000	450,000	57,000	156,000	2,200

CROPS GROWN (in acres sown) in 1921-22

Add 000 to all figures

Province	Rice	Wheat	Barley	Millet	Maize	Oilseeds	Sugar	Cotton	Jute	Tea	Fodder	Other	Total sown
Bengal	21,832	124	83	1,302	90	1,267	277	48	1,316	177	104	..	28,160
Bombay	1,956	1,501	24	12,046	210	903	54	2,835	1,916	..	26,900
Sind	1,044	432	19	6,960	3	375	7	141	125	..	4,036
Madras	11,280	23	3	8,770	104	3,373	119	2,000	..	45	306	..	37,562
Assam	4,517	183	1	339	41	40	81	418	6,227
Bihar and Orissa.	15,220	1,134	1,373	154	1,800	1,670	306	79	109	2	34	..	31,594
United Provinces.	6,847	6,874	4,355	5,345	2,077	696	1,156	807	..	7	1,267	..	44,093
Delhi	...	52	20	86	3	6	7	2	19	..	324
Punjab	821	8,789	1,112	4,562	1,112	1,665	373	1,149	..	10	4,093	..	31,026
N.W.F.P.	24	938	298	370	462	198	34	15	91	..	2,876
Central Provinces.	5,040	2,285	12	2,460	158	1,505	17	1,274	434	..	18,694
Berar	31	163	...	2,698	4	137	...	3,140	6,934
Burma	11,000	69	...	865	233	1,361	35	325	..	54	212	..	16,620
British India	79,700	22,404	7,356	40,115	6,335	12,050	2,363	11,665	1,506	713	8,608	..	256,582

TABLE VII
IRRIGATION (1921-22)

Province	Area Irrigated (in acres)			Percentage of crops irrigated
	By Government canals	By tanks, wells and private canals	Total Irrigated	
Bengal	179,566		1,764,382	7
Madras	3,747,239		9,626,145	25
Bombay	243,546		981,414	4
Central Provinces ...	330,824		1,101,906	9
Bihar and Orissa ...	992,277		5,528,419	22
United Provinces ...	2,240,216		9,868,509	28
Delhi	26,348		42,017	19
Burma	583,030		1,315,130	8
Punjab	8,997,363		13,293,211	51
Sind	2,777,966		2,982,419	74

TABLE VIII
CROPS IRRIGATED (in thousands of acres)

Province	Rice	Wheat	Millet	Pulses	Sugar	Cotton
Bengal	1,531	14	1	147	62	1
Madras	8,027	6	600	1,443	107	132
Bombay	1,219	486	605	334	60	143
Central Provinces ...	949	69	1	7	16	...
Punjab	625	4,905	682	1,470	326	1,054
United Provinces ...	349	3,611	28	2,342	852	200

TABLE IX

FORESTS

Province	Area square miles	Area of Forest	Proportion of forests to whole area	Timber cubic feet
Bengal ...	78,668	10,627	13.5 per cent	17,317,000
Madras ...	142,257	19,304	13.6 per cent	23,800,000
Bombay ...	123,225	12,632	10.3 per cent	54,744,000
United Provinces ...	106,720	7,442	7.0 per cent	34,913,000
Central Provinces ...	99,947	19,792	19.8 per cent	27,702,000
Punjab ...	97,281	6,626	6.8 per cent	34,261,000
Burma ...	243,232	144,708	59.5 per cent	119,254,000
Coorg ...	1,582	520	32.9 per cent	400,989
Bihar and Orissa ...	82,984	3,033	3.7 per cent	18,509,000
Assam ...	49,243	21,502	43.7 per cent	12,773,000
Andamans ...	3,143	2,207	70.2 per cent	1,601,000
British India ...	1,098,341	249,504	22.7 per cent	300,000,000

TABLE X

NUMBERS OF CHIEF CASTES

All those with more than 2,000,000 are included.

Ahir ...	9,000,000	Kumhar...	3,350,000
Baniya ...	2,800,000	Kumbi ...	3,300,000
Brahman ...	14,250,000	Kurmi ...	3,300,000
Chamor ...	11,260,000	Lingayat ...	2,700,000
Dhobi ...	2,000,000	Mahar ...	3,000,000
Gond ...	2,900,000	Mal ...	2,000,000
Gujar ...	2,200,000	Maratha...	6,600,000
Hajjom ...	2,900,000	Namasudra ...	2,200,000
Jat ...	7,400,000	Palli ...	2,800,000
Jolaha ...	2,700,000	Paraiyan ...	2,400,000
Kasbartta ...	2,880,000	Pathan ...	3,500,000
Kapu ...	3,400,000	Rajput ...	9,800,000
Kayastha ...	2,300,000	Sheikh ...	33,400,000
Koli ...	2,500,000	Teli ...	4,200,000

TABLE XI

OCCUPATIONS IN INDIA

Occupation	Number of People
Agriculture ...	224,000,000
Forestry ...	500,000
Stock farming ...	4,500,000
Fishing ...	1,500,000
Mining ...	500,000
Industry ...	33,000,000
Textiles ...	8,000,000
Transport—Railways, etc. ...	4,300,000
Trade (Shopkeepers, etc.) ...	18,000,000
Government, Police, etc. ...	4,900,000
Priests, Doctors, Teachers, etc. ...	5,000,000
Beggars ...	3,000,000
Various ...	2,000,000

TABLE XII
EDUCATION IN 1921-22

Province	Secondary Schools			Primary Schools		
	Number	Boys	Girls	Number	Boys	Girls
Madras ...	603	153,000	16,000	36,275	1,200,000	350,000
Bombay ...	463	66,000	11,000	12,600	640,000	160,000
Bengal ...	2,678	315,000	13,000	47,783	1,112,000	323,000
Central Pro- vinces ...	571	67,000	5,600	4,300	230,000	32,000
Burma ...	1,457	90,000	42,000	5,053	127,000	73,000
British India.	9,000	1,110,000	130,000	160,000	2,110,000	1,200,000

TABLE XIII
RAILWAYS, 1921-22

—	Length miles	Number of passengers in year	Weight of goods carried in year
E. B. R. ...	1,630	40,000,000	5,000,000 tons.
B. N. R. ...	1,902	22,000,000	9,000,000 „
N. W. R. ...	4,084	74,000,000	12,000,000 „
B. B. C. I. R. ...	2,819	90,000,000	8,000,000 „
Burma Railway ...	1,536	35,000,000	3,700,000 „
E. I. R. ...	2,462	48,000,000	17,000,000 „
O. & R. ...	1,513	21,000,000	3,500,000 „
G. I. P. R. ...	2,562	54,000,000	11,000,000 „
M. and S. M.R. ...	2,559	41,000,000	4,500,000 „
S. I. R. ...	1,228	50,000,000	3,300,000 „

TABLE XIV

PROPORTION OF MALES AND FEMALES (1921) PER 1,000 PERSONS

Province	Males	Females
Bombay	526	474
Madras	493	507
Bengal	517	483
Central Provinces	500	500
Assam	521	479
Hyderabad	509	491
Bihar and Orissa	493	507
Mysore	510	490
United Provinces	524	476
Punjab	547	473

TABLE XV

POPULATION OF TOWNS AND CITIES (1921)

1. Calcutta (with Howrah) ... 1,327,547	17. Allahabad ... 157,220
2. Bombay ... 1,175,914	18. Mandalay ... 148,917
3. Madras ... 526,911	19. Nagpur ... 145,193
4. Hyderabad ... 404,187	20. Srinagar ... 141,735
5. Rangoon ... 341,962	21. Madura ... 138,894
6. Delhi ... 304,420	22. Bareilly ... 129,459
7. Lahore ... 281,781	23. Meerut ... 122,609
8. Ahmedabad ... 274,007	24. Trichinopoly ... 120,422
9. Lucknow ... 240,566	25. Jaipur ... 120,207
10. Bangalore ... 237,496	26. Patna ... 119,976
11. Karachi ... 216,883	27. Sholapur ... 119,581
12. Cawnpore ... 216,436	28. Dacca ... 119,450
13. Poona ... 214,796	29. Surat ... 117,434
14. Benares ... 198,447	30. Ajmer ... 113,512
15. Agra ... 185,532	31. Jubbulpore ... 108,793
16. Amritsar ... 160,218	32. Peshawar ... 104,452
	33. Rawalpindi ... 101,142

The first figure is the position amongst cities of India.

TABLE XVI

LANGUAGES

Language	Number of speakers		Where spoken
	Men	Women	
Western Hindi (Hindustani) ...	50,210,000	46,504,000	United Provinces, C.I.
Bengali ...	25,239,000	24,055,000	Bengal, Assam, Bihar and Orissa.
Telugu ...	11,874,000	11,727,000	Madras, Hyderabad.
Marathi ...	9,509,000	9,289,000	Bombay, Central Provinces, Hyderabad.
Tamil ...	9,284,000	9,496,000	Madras, Mysore.
Punjabi ...	8,961,000	7,272,000	Punjab, N.W.F.P.
Rajasthani ...	6,656,000	6,025,000	Rajputana, C.I.
Kanarese ...	5,253,000	5,121,000	Mysore, Bombay, Hyderabad.
Oriya ...	4,952,000	5,192,000	Bihar and Orissa.
Gujarati ...	4,967,000	4,585,000	Bombay, Baroda, Rajputana.
Burmese ...	5,799,000	5,535,000	Burma.
Malayalam ...	3,736,000	3,762,000	Madras, Travancore.
Lahnda ...	3,050,000	2,602,000	Punjab, Kashmir.
Sindhi ...	1,843,000	1,528,000	Sind, Baluchistan.
Bhili ...	932,000	924,000	Bombay, Baroda.
Assamese ...	895,000	232,000	Assam.
Western Pahari ...	854,000	780,000	Punjab, Kashmir.
Pashto ...	819,000	677,000	N.W.F.P., Baluchistan.
Eastern Hindi ...	704,000	695,000	Bombay, Hyderabad, C.P.
Kashmiri ...	687,000	581,000	Kashmir.
Balochi ...	272,000	213,000	Baluchistan.
Munda Languages ...	1,984,000	1,990,000	Chota Nagpur Plateau.
Tibeto-Chinese Languages (Bhotia, Lepcha, Naga and many different languages)	1,000,000	1,000,000	Himalaya Mountains, Eastern Hills Region.

TABLE XVII

WHAT INDIA SELLS AND WHAT INDIA BUYS

(All parts of India)

Country	Things India sells	Things India buys
United Kingdom.	Tea, jute, jute manufactures, oil-seeds, food grains, hides and skins.	Iron and steel goods, Machinery, hardware, railway engines, motor cars, cotton, liquors, papers.
Straits Settlement	Rice, cotton, jute ...	Spices, betelnuts, oils, sugar, silk, tin.
Ceylon ...	Rice, coal, cotton goods.	Tea, copra, spices.
Hong Kong ...	Cotton goods, jute, opium.	Silk and silk goods, sugar.
Egypt ...	Rice, cotton, jute ...	Salt.
Mauritius ...	Rice, jute ...	Sugar.
Canada ..	Jute, tea ...	Motor cars.
South Africa ..	Jute
Australia ...	Jute bags, tea ...	Wheat, coal.
Japan ...	Raw cotton, rice, skins.	Cotton goods, matches, silk goods, glassware, earthenware.
United States ...	Jute, cloth, hides and skins, lac, oilseeds, tea.	Machinery, mineral oils, iron and steel, cotton goods.
Java ...	Jute bags, rice ...	Sugar.
Germany ...	Jute, rice, raw cotton, hides, oilseeds.	Dyes, iron and steel, machinery, hardware, paper.
Belgium ...	Raw cotton, oilseeds, jute, manganese.	Iron and steel goods.
France ...	Oilseeds, jute, cotton	Liquors, rubber goods.
Italy ..	Raw cotton, oilseeds, jute.	Cotton goods, metal goods.
Holland ..	Lac, raw cotton ...	Cotton goods, metal goods.
China ...	Cotton goods, jute, tea.	Silk and silk goods, tea.
South America.	Jute

TABLE XVIII

COTTON MILLS

Province	Number	People employed	No. of Looms	Number of spindles
Madras ...	15	24,500	3,200	4,658,000
Bombay ...	178	238,000	101,000	4,750,000
Bengal ...	13	12,800	3,000	342,000
United Provinces .	15	18,300	5,200	480,000
Central Province .	9	15,600	5,000	244,000
British India ...	237	313,000	119,000	6,376,000
Hyderabad ...	3	3,000	800	64,000
Mysore ...	2	4,400	700	43,000
C.I. ...	6	8,000	3,600	110,000
Total Native States ...	34	29,000	9,400	439,000

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